A SHORT GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH TONGUE WITH THREE HUNDRED AND THIRTY EXERCISES.

All knewledge has in Truth its root Surprise its flower Delight its fruit

SEVENTH EDITION

LONDON
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23 PATERNOSIER ROW, EC
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PLAN OF THIS GRAMMAR

PART I.

The Parts of Speech or Kinds of Words:

ADJECTIVE

ADVERB

NOUN

VERB

Noun-joiners (Prepositions) Verb-joiners (Conjunctions)

PART II.

The Divisions of the above Six Parts of Speech.

PART III.

The Changes made on the Six Parts of Speech.

PART IV.

The Rules for employing the Parts of Speech.

PART V.

The Building-up and Analysis of Sentences.

PART VI.

The Grammar of Rhythmic Speech or Verse.

PREFACE

THE secret of English Grammar—and it is an open secret—lies in the knowledge of what word or words go with what word, and what group of words goes with what particular word. Hence, if I were teaching English Grammar to a young class, I should keep my pupils for at least six months answering such questions as "What does —— go with?" "What word does it belong to?" "What word does —— attach itself to?"

"The school-boy knows very well the fruit of the bramble" What does the first the go with? What does very go with? To what word is of the bramble attached? And so on, and so on.

In this fashion I should prepare the way for a sound and clear knowledge of grammar—based upon the observation of the pupil himself. What the learner has once observed for himself he can never forget.

The English Language wants this previous and preparatory examination more than any other European tongue, chiefly because it, most of all, has stripped itself almost entirely of its old inflections. In Latin, the eye itself helps the learner to notice what words go with what.

In this Short Grammar I have tried to sketch in only the stronger outlines of the build of our mother-tongue. I have omitted difficulties, subtleties, curious idioms, unusual forms of speech; and my single aim has been to give the young learner regular habits—habits of steadiness and accuracy in grammatical thinking. This is done chiefly by the numerous Exercises given—Exercises which, by requiring the attention of the learner to only one thing at a time, fix the idea or the "one thing" permanently in his mind. If the Exercises are slowly and faithfully worked through, the necessary foundation of grammatical knowledge will be laid firm and strong in the intellect of the young learner.

My experience as an Examiner for the last twenty years is that few persons really understand and know the "parts of speech"—have any firm hold of them. They have little or no help from the form of the word they are looking at; they have never had clear and firm practice in observing its function; and hence they are often at a loss to say what it is. If they had been slowly drilled into the perception that all language rests upon four simple ideas—those of the noun and adjective, the verb and the adverb, and that these ideas repeat themselves in the forms of words, phrases, and sentences—they would never have been at a loss in examining their own language or in translating it into another.

The Exercises in this book are intended to put these four simple ideas before the mind's eye of the learner at every possible angle; what does not eatch the mind's eye at one angle will catch it at another; and in this way I have tried, by varied repetition—by repetition without monotony, to drum, drill, and work these ideas into the mind of the young scholar.

The thoughtful, experienced, and well-educated Teacher knows perfectly well what it is best to omit for what particular age; and those who are too hard-worked will thank me for giving so many exercises—which they would otherwise have had to invent themselves. I have tried to make a firm smooth road for the feet of young learners: no subtleties, no exceptions, no pitfalls: and to train them to firm knowledge by clear observation and steady habits. It will be found that, when young learners go wrong, it is because they have not had sufficient practice in what is right.

J. M. D. M.

⁽i) It is recommended that, in going over this Grammar for the first time, the young learner should be required to prepare only the large type; and, of course, only those exercises which bear on the statements made in large type.

⁽ii) There are also other parts which the thoughtful Teacher will omit (such as par. 4, p. 30) until the learner is going through the book for the second or for the third time.

A SHORT GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH TONGUE

INTRODUCTORY

- 1. When we speak we use words.
- 2. A number of words so arranged as to make sense is called language.
- 3. The language spoken by the people of Great Britain, Ireland, and our Colonies, is called the English Language.

The word language comes from the French langue, a tongue. Langue itself comes from the Latin lingua, a tongue.

- (i) We use the phrases English Language, English Tongue, English Speech; and all these phrases show that a language is something spoken.
- (ii) But a language may also be written or printed. It is plain, however, that we speak a thousand words for every one we write.
 - 4. The Science of Language is called Grammar.
 - (i) The science of the English language is called English Grammar.
 - (ii) All language is either spoken or written.
 - (iii) English Grammar treats chiefly of the usages of written or printed speech.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Lesson 1.—The Divisions of Grammar.

- 1. Words are made up of letters.
- (i) The part of Grammar which teaches us how to use letters is called Orthography. Orthography is a word made up of two Greek words, which mean correct uriting.
- (ii) Orthography is the Science of Letters.
- (iii) Letters are marks which tell us what sounds to make with the voice,
- 2. Words are built up into Sentences.
- (i) The part of Grammar which gives the rules for the making of sentences is called Syntax.

Syntax is a Greek word, which means order. When a Greek general had drawn up his soldiers in order of battle, they were said to be in syntax.

- (ii) Syntax is the Science of Sentences. .
- 3. Words have an origin and a history; they grow, and as they grow, changes are made on them.
- (i) The story of this origin and the description of the changes made in words are contained in the part of Grammar called Etymology.

The word Etymology is made up of two Greek words which mean a true account.

- (ii) Etymology treats of the Origin of Words, and of the Changes made upon them.
- 4. Some language is built up by poets into sets of words that have a beautiful flow. This beautiful flow comes chiefly from the accents appearing at regular intervals. This kind of language is called verse.
 - (i) Thus we have in Sir Walter Scott :-

The wa'y was lo'ng, The mi'n strel wa's the wi'nd

was co'ld,

(ii) The part of Grammar which treats of verse is called Prosody.

Prosody is a Greek word which means a song sunj to music. In music there are beats, which come at regular intervals; in verse there are accents at regular intervals.

(iii) Prosody treats of verse, its nature, and its different kinds,

- 5. We have, therefore: a Grammar of Letters; a Grammar of Words; a Grammar of Sentences; and a Grammar of Verse.
 - (i) The Grammar of Letters is called Orthography.
 - (ii) The Grammar of Words is called Etymology.
 - (iii) The Grammar of Sentences is called Syntax.
 - (iv) The Grammar of Verse is called Prosody.

Exercise 1. 1. What is the Science of Letters called?
2. What name is given to the Science of Sentences? 3. What do we call the Science of the Origin of Words? 4. What is the part of Grammar which treats of Verse called?

Lesson 2.—Orthography. 1.

- 1. There are, in speaking, two kinds of sounds: open sounds; and stopped sounds (or penned-up sounds).
- (i) If we say a, we can keep uttering that sound as long as our breath will hold out. It is an open sound.
- (ii) But, if we say at, we stop the flow of the breath with the sound t. Thus t is a stopped sound.

2. Open Sounds are called vowels.

- (i) The vowels of the English language are five: a, e, i, o, u. When it is at the end of a syllable or word, as in any, y is also a vowel.
- (ii) If w and y begin a word—as in wine and yoke—they are called semi-vowels. If they end a word—as in valley and yellow—they are vowels.
- (iii) When two vowels are combined in one sound, they form a diphthong. Thus of in boil; on in house are called diphthongs.

The word diphthong is a Greek word which means two sounds.

3. Stopped Sounds are called consonants.

- (i) There are, in our language, 21 letters used as consonants.
- (ii) We may stop a sound with the teeth, as in it, id. These letters t and d are called tooth-sounds or dentals.
- (iii) We may stop a sound with the lips, as in ip, ib. These letters p and b are called lip-letters or labials.
- (iv) We may stop a sound with the throat, as in ik, ig. These letters k and g are called throat-letters or gutturals.

- 4. The letters we employ to write down our thoughts are 26 in number.
 - (i) These 26 letters are called the Alphabet The word alphabet is Greek. The two first letters of the Greek alphabet are alpha, leta.
 - (ii) Of these 26, three are useless; c, q, and x. C=either s or k; q kw; x=ks.

Exercise 2. 1. What is an open sound called in Grammar's 2. What is a stopped sound called? 3. Write down the five vowels. 4. Give three examples of diphthongs. 5. Mention two sounds that are (i) stopped with the teeth; (ii) two stopped with the lips; and (iii) two stopped with the throat.

Lesson 3.—Orthography. 11.

- 1. Words consist not only of letters, but also of syllables.
- 2. A syllable is that part of a word which is produced by one effort of the voice.
 - (i) Thus the word dog is uttered with one effort; and is a word of one syllable.
 - (ii) But the word dog-ged-ness requires three efforts
 - 3. A word of one syllable is called a monosyllable.

 Dog, cat, bark, mew are monosyllables.
 - 4. A word of two syllables is called a dissyllable.

 Puppy, kitten, parking, mewing are dissyllables.
 - A word of three syllables is called a trisyllable.
 Comforting, immensely are trisyllables.
 - A word of more than three syllables is called a polysyllable.

 Poly comes from the Greek word polys, many.

Comfortable, unsatisfactory are polysyllables.

- Exercise 3. 1. Divide the following words into syllables: Behave, commence, commencement, companion, dependent, embarrassment, forgetfulness, generosity, humility, resolute, society, venerable. 2. Write down three monosyllables.
- Exercise 4. 1. Write down three dissyllables. 2. Write down three trisyllables. 3. Write down six polysyllables.

ETYMOLOGY. PART I.

Lesson 4.—Kinds of Words. 1.

Words are gregarious; that is, they always go in groups or acts. The number of words in each group values very much. It may vary from two to two hundred. We speak of a chord of herrings; of a shoot of whites, of a chord of gives; of a higher of wide wans: of a coney of putridges, of a bery of lake or "of fair ladies", of a higher of pheasants; of a herd of deer; of a horde of saviges. But the name we give to a set of words which go together is a REMINIA E.

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- (1) In these sentences we say about Lions, that they roar; about Pigs, that they grunt; about Cows, that they low.
 - 2. The words Lions, Pigs, and Cows, are all Names.
 - 3. A Name in Grammar is called a Noun.

Therefore the words Lions, Pigs, and Cows, are Nouns.

- 4. The words roar, grunt, and low, are words which tell us something—they tell us what kinds of sounds lions, pigs, and cows make.
 - 5. The words roar, grunt, and low are therefore telling words.
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A verb may consist of one word or of several. Such sets of words as "was scolding," "will strike," "kas been struck," must be looked on as single verbs.

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ETYMOLOGY. PART I.

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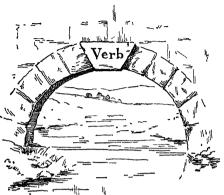
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 - 5. The words roar, grunt, and low are therefore telling words.
- 6. A Telling word in Grammar is called a Verb.

A verb may consist of one word or of several. Such sets of words as "was scolding," "will strike," "has been struck," must be looked on as single verbs.

7. The verb is the key-stone of speech. If it is left



out, all the other words fall into nonsense.

- (1) If we say "I to the river with John, we talk nonsense
- (i) If we put in the verb went or ran, and say: "I ran to the river with John," we talk sense.
- 8. The same word may be used either as a noun or as a verb.
- (i) If we say a roar, a grunt, a sleep, we are using these words as nouns because they are names.
- (1) If we say, The lions roar, the pigs grunt, the birds aleep, we are using these words as verbs, because they tell something about the lions, the pigs, and the birds

Exercise 5. Select the nouns in the following sentences:

1. The kitten sat in a dark corner.

2. I hung with grooms and porters on the bridge.

3. The wolves howled in the dark and dreary night.

4. The train ran too fast into the station.

5. The boy is skating on the pond.

6. The birds are singing in the distant woods.

Exercise 6. Mention (or write down) the names of twelve things in a room.

Exercise 7. Select the VERBS in the sentences in Exercise 5.

Exercise 8. Select the NOUNS in the following sentences:

1. Gas is made from coal. 2. The tap sounded loudly on the door in the silent night. 3. The hills are white with snow. 4. The girl carried her basket of eggs to market. 5. The priest threw his spear at the temple of the false god. 6. The sweeps dressed themselves in leaves and flowers

Ex. 9. Mention (or write down) the names of twelve animals.

Ex. 10. Mention (or write down) the names of twelve flowers.

Exercise 11. Select the VERBS in the sentences in Exercise 8.

Exercise 12. Write out (or point out) the NOUNS and the VERBS said of them in the following sentences; and place the verbs opposite the nouns: 1. The brown bear climbed the mountain. 2. The traveller rested on the fallen tree. 3. The hart swam across the lake. 4. The trout dart here and there in the pool. 5. The little girl was sewing in the corner. 6. Round his waist was girt a broadsword.

Exercise 13. Insert suitable verbs into the following nonsensical collections of words: 1. An old woman in the pleasant valley of Ashton. 2. The billy-goat up the steep mountain. 3. The cruel sailor the seal. 4. Little puss in a dark corner. 5. The hyena fiercely. 6. Mrs. Jones quickly her basket. 7. The village boys at the game of football and other games. 8. She was a book in the window-seat. 9. Robin Hood the poor and the rich. 10. Ducks whenever they take to the water. 11. The swan swiftly over the lake. 12. The dog the rat fiercely.

Exercise 14. Work this Exercise in the same way as Exercise 12. 1. The river falls into the harbour. 2. The dogs barked quite fiercely. 3. The rain makes music in the waving trees. 4. The sound comes borne upon the sighing breeze. 5. The milkman's daughter ran to the door. 6. The little children play on the floor.

Exercise 15. Place suitable VERBS after the following NOUNS:
1. The boys. 2. The girls. 3. The children. 4. Dogs. 5. Cats.
6. The spider. 7. Eagles. 8. The hon. 9. The elephant. 10. The seal. 11. The river. 12. The traveller.

Exercise 16. Place suitable nouns before the following verses:

1. Fly. 2. Roar. 3. Hunt. 4. Kick. 5. Sleeps. 6. Rattle.

7. Totters. 8. Hobbles along. 9. Fell. 10. Howled. 11. Danced. 12. Speaks.

Exercise 17. State when, in this Exercise, the following words are used as NOUNS, and when as VERBS: Box, breakfast, cart, cloud, colour, cut. 1. The box was sent by the passenger train. 2. We had a very good breakfast before we started. 3. The cart rumbled slowly over the bridge. 4. A cloud passed suddenly over the stream. 5. The cloths are not of the same

colour. 6. There was a deep cut in the bark of the tree. 7. The dogs were boxed up for the journey. 8. We breakfast every morning at eight. 9. The farmers cart off their young calves to the railway station. 10. Our prospects were clouded by the unhappy accident. 11. The boys colour pictures all the afternoon. 12. He cut his finger while he was making a boat.

Exercise 18. Work this Exercise like the preceding with the words: Dream, fear, feast, hammer, hand, head. 1. The little boy dreamed a fearful dream. 2. The fear of meeting the enemy kept us in hiding. 3. Belshazzar the king gave a great feast. 4. The blacksmith had a hammer in his hand. 5. The colonels head their regiments in the attack. 6. The men greatly fear the approach of cholera. 7. The kind merchant will feast the school-children in his splendid mansion. 8. The smith hammered hard at the bar of iron. 9. The gentleman will hand the lady to her seat. 10. He looks as if he had quite lost his head.

Exercise 19. Work this Eccrcise in the same way with the words: Hold, hope, hunger, look, move, murder. 1. The lad lost his hold of the rope and fell into the sea. 2. While there is life there is hope. 3. Some men hunger and thirst after righteousness. 4. The master quelled the riot with a look. 5. I wonder what his next move will be. 6. The soldier was found guilty of the murder of his comrade. 7. Our cousins hold five hundred acres of land in Canada. 8. We hope to see you soon again. 9. The pangs of hunger drove the boys home. 10. The mother from the window looked with all the longings of a mother. 11. We must move on faster if we wish to catch the train. 12. The pirates murder the passengers as well as the crew.

Exercise 20. Work this Exercise in the same way with the words: Nod, pinch, play, ring, run, salt. 1. I threw him a nod, and he came out after me. 2. The pinch made his arm black and blue. 3. John spends too much of his time in play. 4. The girls danced round the tree in a ring. 5. The long run made the boys rather tired. 6. The fishermen salt their fish with sea-salt. 7. We nod to them whenever we meet them. 8. They pinch me on the arm. 9. We play cricket every Wednesday afternoon. 10. The farmer will ring the bull because he is so fierce. 11. The boys run down to the lake every morning. 12. There is no salt in the house.

Exercise 21. Work this Exercise in the same way with the words: Shade, shake, ship, spoil, stone, thunder. 1. We sat in the shade of the elm-tree all the afternoon. 2. We had a dreadful shake in the railway collision. 3. The merchants ship large quantities of goods on board the Vulcan. 4. The Israelites spoiled the Egyptians when they left. 5. The men stone the poor foreigners through the streets. 6. The serjeants thunder at their men. 7. The gardeners shade their plants against the sun. 8. You must shake the bottle before taking the medicine. 9. The troops brought back immense spoil. 10. The stone of which the Houses of Parliament are built is very soft. 11. The ship Teutonic sails every Wednesday for New York. 12. The thunder came in terrific peals every few minutes.

Exercise 22. Work this Exercise in the same way with the words: Time, trick, tumble, walk, war, winter. 1. We time the train and find that it generally arrives to the minute. 2. The guard played us a very ugly trick. 3. Tom and Harry had a pleasant tumble among the hay. 4. We are going a long walk this afternoon. 5. The Philistines war against the people of Israel. 6. The Danes wintered for the first time in the Isle of Sheppey. 7. It took a longer time to get to Brighton than we expected. 8. The poor countryman was tricked out of all his money. 9. The boys toss and tumble the hay about every afternoon. 10. We walk six miles every day. 11. The war between the Germans and the French lasted nearly a year. 12. Last winter was a very severe one.

Exercise 23. Work this Exercise in the same way with the words: Bridge, station, tap, spear, sweep, round. 1. The engineers bridge the stream with ease. 2. The troops were stationed at the gates of the palace. 3. A low tap was heard at the door. 4. The Arab speared his enemy on the spot. 5. The servant will sweep the room in the morning. 6. The ship will round the point with little difficulty. 7. The bridge was swept away by the flood. 8. The station was filled with armed men. 9. The beggar will tap at the kitchen door. 10. Goliath's spear was like a weaver's beam. 11. The road takes a mighty sweep before one comes to the house. 12. A round of beef stood on the table for the hungry boys' dinner.

Lesson 5.—Kinds of Words. 11.

- 1. We can also say: The hungry lions roar. The fat pigs grunt. The red cows low.
- (i) In the sentence: The hungry lions roar, it is plain that the words the and hungry go with Hons.
 - (ii) In the sentence: The fat pigs grunt, the and fat go with pigs.
 - (iii) In the sentence: The red cows low, the and red go with cows.
- 2. (a) A word that goes with a noun is called in Grammar an Adjective. Or (b) An Adjective is a Noun-marking word.
- (i) Adjectives may also be used as nouns. We say: The rich, The poor, The free, The able-bodied, etc. The noun persons is understood.
- (ii) But we must observe about this usage: That the adjective must always have The before it. We cannot say "A rich or "A poor."
- 3. We can go further and say: The hungry lions roar terribly. The fat pigs grunt constantly. The red cows low loudly.
- (i) In the sentence: The hungry hons roar terribly, it is plain that the word terribly goes with the verb roar.
 - (ii) In: The fat pigs grunt constantly, the word constantly goes with grunt.
 - (iii) In the sentence: The rad cows low loudly, the word loudly goes with low.

4. A word that goes with a verb is called an Adverb.

Exercise 24. Select (or point out) the ADJECTIVES in the following sentences: 1. The little kitten sat in a dark corner. 2. The fat bear and the lean fox walked together. 3. The stout ship was wrecked in a terrible gale. 4. The merry lark was singing his early song. 5. The tall house was lighted up with countless candles. 6. The hungry wolf looked at the fat chickens.

Exercise 25. Point out, in the following sentences, the ADJECTIVES that are used as names or NOUNS: 1. The good alone are truly happy. 2. None but the brave deserve the fair. 3. Toll for the brave, the brave that are no more! 4. How are the mighty fallen! 5. God rejecteth the proud, but giveth grace to the humble. 6. Only the old are admitted to this hospital.

7. That is a school for the deaf and dumb. 8. The haughty often meet with insult. 9. So long a walk is all very well for the strong and hearty; but it should not be attempted by the old and feeble. 10. The proud and violent are to be shunned. 11. It is good to be found among the congregation of the righteous. 12. England is the land of the free.

Exercise 26. Write out from Exercise 24 the ADJECTIVES and the NOUNS they go with in opposite columns.

Exercise 27. Add suitable ADJECTIVES (one or more) to the following NOUNS: 1. Boys. 2. Girls. 3. Dogs. 4. Pigs. 5. Cats. 6. Ink. 7. Paper. 8. Pen. 9. Prisoner. 10. Whale. 11. Deer. 12. Grave.

Exercise 28. Place suitable nouns after the following ADJECTIVES: 1. Tall. 2. Fat. 3. Clever. 4. Active. 5. Dark. 6. Sweet. 7. Blue. 8. Gentle. 9. Deep. 10. Cruel. 11. Green. 12. Vast.

Lesson 6.—Kinds of Words. III.

- 1. We can say: It is a very fine morning.
- (1) In this sentence, fine goes with the noun morning, and is therefore an adjective.
- (ii) But what does very go with? Very goes with fine.
- 2. A word that goes with an adjective is called an Adverb.
- 3. We can say: John swims very well.
- (1) In this sentence, well goes with swims, and is an adverb.
- (ii) But very goes with well, and is also an adverb.
- 4. A word that goes with an adverb is called an Adverb.
- 5. An Adverb is, therefore, a word that goes with a Verb, or an Adjective, or another Adverb.
- 6. We can say: The lark sings sweetly. The work is extremely hard. The nightingale sings very sweetly.
- (i) In the first sentence, sweetly goes with sings, and shows us how the lark sings. It modifies the meaning of the verb sings.

- (n) In the second sentence, extremely goes with hard, and shows us how hard the work is. It modifies the meaning of the adjective hard.
- (m) In the third sentence, very goes with sweetly, and shows us how sweetly the nightingale sings. It modifies the meaning of the adverb sweetly.
 - 7. We now see that an Adverb is a Modifying Word.
- 8. An Adverb modifies the meaning of Verbs, of Adjectives, and of other Adverbs.

Exercise 29. Select the ADVERBS in the following sentences:

1. The train ran quickly into the station. 2. The lion was mortally wounded. 3. The fire was burning brightly. 4. The rector spoke kindly to the old woman. 5. The wind was a very cold wind. 6. The postman will come soon. 7. His mother felt exceedingly uneasy about her son John. 8. Fairy rings are very beautiful. 9. The boat drifted away. 10. The boy was almost dead with fatigue. 11. The speaker was loudly applauded. 12. The girls are very happy at school.

Exercise 30. Select the ADVERBS in Exercise 29, and place them before the VERBS or the ADJECTIVES they modify, thus:

ADVERBS. VERBS. ADJECTIVES
Quickly Ran Very Cold

Exercise 31. Select, from the following sentences, the ADVERBS that modify ADVERBS, and place them opposite each other in columns: 1. I thanked him very much before I left. 2. The company was very greatly annoyed by his sudden disappearance. 3. Mr. Bright always spoke very slowly. 4. The boy ran exceedingly fast and gained the race. 5. The children danced quite merrily round the tree. 6. She is almost always cross. 7. We have only just come. 8. He is much too lazy for me. 9. He comes here rather often. 10. I hardly ever see him. 11. The lad was most terribly frightened. 12. Do not walk so fast!

Exercise 32. Add surtable ADVERBS to the following ADJECTIVES: 1. Angry. 2. Dull. 3. Tall. 4. Able. 5. Glad. 6. Great. 7. Wonderful. 8. Willing. 9. Steady. 10. Difficult. 11. Brave. 12. Clever.

Exercise 33. Make twelve sentences, each containing one of the following ADVERBS: 1. Often. 2. Here. 3. There. 4.

Soon. 5. Late. 6. Almost. 7. Quite. 8. Very. 9. Straight. 10. Oddly. 11. Quietly. 12. Well.

Exercise 34. Write out, in columns, the ADVERBS in the following sentences, and, opposite them, the VERBS, ADJECTIVES, or ADVERBS they modify, thus:

ADVERBS. VERBS. | ADVERBS. ADJECTIVES. | ADVERBS. ADVERBS. Fast Ride | Too Eager | Very Soon

1. We buried him darkly at dead of night. 2. The poor dog very soon died. 3. Bruin came very slowly and slily up to the side of the hive. 4. The snow falls so thickly that we cannot see far. 5. No boy is ever hopelessly stupid. 6. Some boys are terribly lazy. 7. I am very much obliged for the book. 8. The mastiff grows more savage every day. 9. The mother loved her son only too dearly. 10. The child was very dreadfully bruised. 11. She walked too quickly to the station, sat down carelessly at an open window, and consequently caught cold. 12. Slowly and sadly we laid him down.

Exercise 35. Make sentences containing the following adverbs: 1. Soon. 2. Shortly. 3. Exceedingly. 4. Very. 5. Here. 6. Truly. 7. Away. 8. Cruelly. 9. Nearly. 10. Seldom. 11. Lately. 12. Too.

Lesson 7.—Kinds of Words. IV.

- 1. Many words are used either as Adjectives or as Adverbs.
 - (1) If they mark nouns, they are adjectives; if they modify verbs, they are adverbs.
 - (11) Such are the words :- Fair ; high , hard , little, long , loud ; low ; much ; straight, etc.
 - (in) We can say: To play fair or Fair play; To aim high or A high wall, etc.
 - (1v) In "Love me little, love me long," little and long are both adverbs.
 - 2. Some Nouns can be used as Adjectives.
 - (i) Such as : Gold, iron, steel; cotton, linen; stone, glass, Paris, London; etc.
 - (11) We can say: "Gold" or "a gold ring", "London 'or "a London watch."
 - 3. Some Adverbs may be employed as Nouns.
 - (i) We say "Before now" (=this time) "Since then '(=that time).
 - (11) Coleridge says: "Ah for the change 'twixt now and then!"

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Exercise 36. Some words in the following sentences are used either as ADJECTIVES or as ADVERBS. Place them in columns before the nouns they go with or the words they modify, thus:

ADJECTIVES. NOUNS. ADVERES. VERBS
Fast Runner Fast Run

1. This is the better and easier way to the town. 2. Mary sews better than Lucy. 3. This ball is too hard. 4. The blacksmith hammered hard on his anvil the whole day. 5. Tom is still a very little boy. 6. I little dreamt of meeting him in London. 7. We have not much money in the bank. 8. My uncle feels much better to-day. 9. Most people prefer to walk. 10. It was a most beautiful sunset. 11. Do not speak so loud! 12. We were almost deafened by the loud reports of the cannon. 13. This is a worse pen than any I ever had in my hand. 14. The boys behaved worse than before.

Exercise 37. Make sentences in which the following words are used (i) as adverses and then as (ii) adjectives: 1. Fast. 2. Quick. 3. Very. 4. Better. 5. Worse. 6. Loud. 7. Much. 8. More. 9. Little. 10. Half. 11. Low. 12. Late.

- (a) "That is the very man!
- (b) "Speak low, for the Old Year lies a-dying!
- (c) Full may also be used as an adverb. "Full soon thy soul shall have her earthly freight!"

Exercise 38. Make twelve sentences, in which the following words shall be used first as ADJECTIVES and then as ADVERES: 1. Faster. 2. Hard. 3. Much. 4. Most. 5. First. 6. Pretty.

Exercise 39. In the following sentences state whether the words gold, stone, kitchen, cottage, church, Birmingham are used as nouns or as adjectives: 1. Mary's uncle gave her a gold watch. 2. Gold is one of the precious metals. 3. A stone building will not last so long as a building of good brick. 4. Midlothian is famous for its quarries of freestone. 5. The robbers found their way into the house through the kitchen window. 6. Susan is busy baking bread in the kitchen. 7. Lucy was the sweetest thing that ever grew beside a cottage door. 8. The cottage was almost covered with roses. 9. One of the church windows was broken last night. 10. Our seat in church is near the pulpit. 11. Birmingham is celebrated for its glass. 12. Birmingham glass is both cheap and elegant.

Lesson 8.-Kinds of Words. v.

- 1. We can say: Jack in the box. Fly on a wheel. Man with a gun.
 - (1) In the first phrase, the word in joins the two nouns Jack and box.
 - (ii) In the second, the word on joins fly and wheel.
 - (iii) In the third, the word with joins man and gun.
 - 2. The words in, on, and with are Noun-joining words.
 - 3. Noun-joining words are called Prepositions.
- 4. We can also say: Stupid with cold. Slow at work. Alone on the hill.
 - (1) In the first phrase, with joins the noun cold to the adjective stupid.
 - (ii) In the second, at joins the noun work to the adjective slow.
 - (iii) In the third, on joins the noun hill to the adjective alone.
 - 5. Prepositions, then, can join Nouns to Adjectives.
- 6. We can also say: The gamekeeper shot the bird with a pistol. The wolves dashed against the door.
 - (i) In the first sentence, the word with joins pistol to the verb shot.
 - (ii) In the second, the word against joins door to the verb dashed.
 - 7. Prepositions, then, can join Nouns to Verbs.
- 8. Prepositions join Nouns to other Nouns, or to Adjectives, or to Verbs.

Exercise 40. Select the PREPOSITIONS in the following phrases and sentences, and state what NOUNS they connect: 1. The book on the floor. 2. The grapes on the wall. 3. The bird in the cage. 4. The lads on the ice. 5. The dog sat between the boys. 6. Boys at cricket. 7. The man stood before the door. 8. The bird in the apple-tree. 9. The corner of the garden. 10. War between Russia and Turkey. 11. The road through the wood is very rough. 12. The seat under the tree is much liked by the old folk.

Exercise 41. Select the PREPOSITIONS in the following phrases and sentences, and state what ADJECTIVES and NOUNS they connect:

1. Quick at work, slow at meals. 2. I felt quite numb with cold. 3. York is famous for its Minster. 4. My aunt was very kind to the boys. 5. She was always careful about our amusements. 6. No one is so proud of his batting. 7. The dog is very fond of biscuits. 8. My uncle was sorry for his servant. 9. The room was bright with lamps. 10. The garden was lovely in the sunlight. 11. He is not very eager about the match. 12. His nose was quite blue with cold.

Exercise 42. Select the PREPOSITIONS in the following sentences, and state what verbs and nouns they connect: 1. The gamekeeper shot the snipe with his old gun. 2. Mrs. Styles always travelled with twenty-three trunks. 3. The old lady sat in her old arm-chair. 4. Paris stands on the Seine 5. The ship sailed from Leith to the Polar seas. 6. The sailor fell into the harbour. 7. The canary flew to her mistress. 8. Cardinal Wolsey was born in the fifteenth century. 9. The hat was hanging on its own peg. 10. The stork is protected by law in Holland. 11. Reynard trotted along with his tail in the air. 12. The cuckoo visits us in April.

Exercise 43. Add PREPOSITIONS and NOUNS to the following nouns, adjectives, and verbs: 1. Bird. 2. Fond. 3. Struck. 4. The captain lived —. 5. The steam-engine at —. 6. My coat is —. 7. The cart rattled along —. 8. The negroes — are very lazy. 9. The king — is dead. 10. The Lord Mayor — is coming here to-day. 11. The train will arrive — 12. The shepherd sat fluting —. 13. The church stands —.

Lesson 9.—Kinds of Words, vi

- 1. We can say: The man rose and fled. The bear and the lion are fierce animals I will come if you are there.
 - (1) In the first sentence, the word and joins the verb rose and the verb fied.
- (ii) In the second, the word and joins the two sentences "The bear is a fierce animal" and "The lion is a fierce animal"
 - (iii) In the third, the word if joins the verb will come to the verb are.

- 2. The words and and if are Verb-joining words.
- (i) In the sentence: "Two and two make four, and merely joins the two adjectives two and two. It would be absurd to say "Two makes four and "Two makes four"
 - (11) And is therefore the only exception to the statement that conjunctions join verbs
- 3. A Verb-joining word is called in Grammar a Conjunction. Or, Conjunctions are Verb-joining words.
- 4. The words but, except, and notwithstanding may be used either as Prepositions or as Conjunctions.
 - (1) "All went but him" or "except him" Here but and except are prepositions
- (ii) "They went, but he remained. Here but is a conjunction, because it joins two sentences
 - 5. Some Adverbs may be employed as Conjunctions.
 - (1) In: "He has since left the country," since is an adverb modifying has left.
- (1) If we say, "I have never seen him since he left the country, since is a conjunction joining two sentences.

Exercise 44. Select the CONJUNCTIONS in the following sentences, and state what verbs they connect: 1. Come and dine with us to-morrow. 2 We shall not go, unless you come with us. 3. We will stay at home if it rains. 4. The train has not arrived though the clock has struck ten. 5. We shall all go skating as soon as the lake is frozen. 6. The bee hummed his thanks as he roamed from flower to flower 7. I waited at the stile till he returned. 8. I will come, since you order me. 9. The boy was drowned, but the kitten was saved. 10. The wolf laughed at the fox because he was so proud of his brush. 11. You must take care lest you fall into the pond. 12. I heard that the ship was wrecked.

Exercise 45. Write out the CONJUNCTIONS in Exercise 44, with the VERBS they connect on each side of them, thus:

VERB. CONJUNCTION, VERB. VERB CONJUNCTION VERB.
Come and dine Go unless come

Exercise 46. Select the PRIPOSITIONS and the CONJUNCTIONS in the following sentences, and state what they connect: 1. An old owl lived in an oak and hunted mice. 2. Polly put the kettle on the fire, but Susan took it off again. 3. An Arab lost

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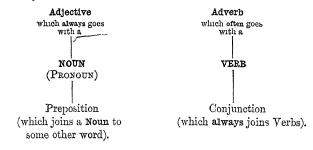
his way in the desert, and wandered about till he died. 4. He will not come to the dance unless you invite him. 5. The chicken was plucked before it was quite dead. 6. Willows are weak, but they bind together other wood. 7. I wonder whether they will come to the ball. 8. They caught sight of the town when they reached the top of the hill. 9. My poor dog Tray went with me wherever I went. 10. I knew by the smoke that a house was near. 11. I told him that I was going to London by the Midland. 12. We should get no coals, if the miners did not work in their mines.

Exercise 47. Place the PREPOSITIONS and CONJUNCTIONS in Exercise 46 in columns, between the words they connect, thus:

PREFOSITIONS. CONJUNCTIONS.
Lived in oak Lived and hunted

Lesson 10.—Kinds of Words. vii.

- 1. We now know six kinds of words. They go in pairs: Noun and Verb; Adjective and Adverb; Preposition and Conjunction.
 - 2. They can be set out in a TABLE:



- 3. The following statements may safely be made:
- (1) An Adjective does for a Noun what an Adverb does for a Verb,
- (11) Or: Adjective : Noun :: Adverb : Veib.
- (111) Prepositions do for Nouns what Conjunctions do for Verbs.
- (iv) Or: Prepositions: Nouns:: Conjunctions: Verbs.

Exercise 48. Select, in the following sentences, the nouns and the verbs said of them; the ADJECTIVES and the nouns they go with; the ADVERBS and the words they modify. Place them in columns thus:

NOUNS. VERBS. | ADJECTIVES. NOUNS. | ADVERBS. WORDS MODIFIED.

Dogs bank Fierce dogs Very loudly

1. Our bugles sang truce, for the night-cloud had lowered, and the sentinel stars set their watch in the sky. 2. The speckled deer lie in separate groups here and there in the park. 3. The nightingale now tells the same tale she told when the earth was young. 4. The warriors went back to their humble cottages among the green hills. 5. The body and I pulled at one rope, but he said nought to me. 6. The clouds are scudding across the moon; a misty light is on the sea.

Exercise 49. Work this Exercise like Exercise 47. 1. The wind in the shrouds has a wintry tune, and the foam is flying free. 2. The spirit of your fathers shall start from every wave! 3. In the pleasant valley of Dovedale lived an old woman. 4. The little boys play in the evening on the broad village green. 5. Scarce could they see or hear their foes, until at weapon-point they close. 6. He murmured earnest thanks to the fair lady for her great kindness.

Exercise 50. Work the following Exercise like Exercise 47:

1. The travellers marched through the dense African forest in single file, with their guns slung on their backs.

2. The sportsman emerged from the thicket and ran up to the wolf.

3. He goes on Sunday to the church, and sits among his boys.

4. The Romans held Britain for about four hundred years; but they left it at last.

5. The stubborn spearmen still made good their dark impenetrable wood.

6. Robin Hood, although he was a robber, never plundered poor people or injured women.

Exercise 51. Make ¹ six sentences, each containing at least one noun, one verb, one adjective, and one adverb.

Exercise 52. Make six sentences, each containing a noun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb, and a preposition.

Exercise 53. Make six sentences, each containing a noun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb, and a conjunction.

¹ Or the sentences may be selected from the Reading-Book.

Exercise 54. Make six sentences, each containing a preposition and a conjunction.

Lesson 11.—Kinds of Words. vIII.

- 1. We can say:—That is a nightingale: I hear him sing ing. I see the children: they are in the garden.
 - (1) In the first sentence, him stands for the noun nightingale.
 - (ii) In the second, they stands for the noun children.
- 2. A word that stands for a noun is called in Grammar a Pronoun. Or a Pronoun is a word that stands for a noun.
 - (1) A pronoun denotes a person or thing.
 - (11) But it never names him. It is like a per-
- 3. There is a kind of word that is (as it were) thrown into a sentence, but is not built up into it, nor does it form any real part of the sentence.
- 4. A word thrown into a sentence is called in Grammar an Interjection.

Interjection is a Latin word which means thrown between,

- (1) Such words as O! Oh! Alas! Hurrah! etc., are Interjections.
- (11) It is plain that any sentence can do quite well without them.

Exercise 55. Point out the Pronouns in the following sentences: 1. Tom is liked by everybody; he is such a nice little fellow. 2. Mary fetched a rose from the garden and brought it to her aunt. 3. The stories in that book are rather dull; at least I do not find them interesting. 4. In winter hares change the colour of their coats. 5. The boy went to meet his father. 6. Tom's uncle gave him a new watch, but he

does not take care of it. 7. The cook has gone into the garden for some vegetables; she is going to boil them for dinner. 8. The gamekeeper's dogs are very clever; they obey him the moment he speaks to them. 9. The wolf would have attacked the little girl; but there were some woodcutters by, so he let her alone, and fled from them. 10. Tom's watch has had to go to the watchmaker: he says it wants a new mainspring.

Exercise 56. Write out, in opposite columns, the PRONOUNS in Exercise 52, and the NOUNS for which they stand.

Lesson 12.—Modes of joining Words.

- 1. There are two ways of joining together two pieces of wood. We may either drive a nail through both; or we may join them by the help of glue.
 - (1) In the first case, the connecting force is outside of both.
 - (11) In the second case, it comes between both.
- 2. In the same way, the connecting words which we employ in our language—the **prepositions** and **conjunctions**—may be used either after the manner of nails or of glue.
- 3. We can say: Into the room bounced the children. We can also say: The children bounced into the room.
- (i) In both sentences, the preposition into connects the noun room with the verb
 - (11) In the first sentence, into is a grammatical nail.
 - (111) In the second sentence, into 1s grammatical glue.
- 4. Tennyson, in his poem of the MAY-QUEEN, makes her say: "If you're waking, call me early, mother dear." But the sentence would give the same sense if it stood thus: "Call me early, if you're waking."

- (i) In the first form of the sentence, the conjunction if connects the two sentences "You are waking," and "Call me," after the fashion of a nail. It stands outside of both sentences.
- (ii) In the second form, if comes between the two sentences, just as glue comes between two pieces of wood.

Exercise 57. State whether the PREPOSITIONS in the following sentence stand outside of or come between the words they join: 1. In a barn she used to frolic long time ago. 2. Through the mighty billows dashed the powerful steamer. 3. Down on his knees the bishop fell. 4. In a dream of the night I beheld a vision. 5. After him gaily trotted the young foal. 6. Up the mountain-side we ran! 7. Down the other side we slid!

Exercise 58. State whether the Conjunctions in the following sentences stand outside of or come between the words they join: I. Although the weather improved, he refused to walk out. 2. You cannot hope to succeed unless you try. 3. I like him because he is always good-tempered. 4. I have not seen him since we parted at Coventry. 5. He declined to admit that he was wrong. 6. I ran home as it was getting dark. 7. Do not take the medicine if you feel better. 8. When he entered the room-all stood up. 9. As the train did not arrive in time, we missed our connection. 10. Unless you speak very plainly, he will not understand you. 11. Because he was poor and ill, people took pity on him. 12. Since the business has turned out so badly, we must try something else. 13. If you have a letter from your brother, send it on to me. 14. That he was wrong he absolutely declined to admit. 15. The porter could not tell us when the train left.

FIRST METHOD OF PARSING.

The ship rushed on before the gale.

- 1. The goes with the noun ship,
- 2. Ship is a name,
- 3. Rushed tells something about the ship,
- 4. On is a word that goes with the verb rushed,
- 5. Before is a word that joins the noun gale to the verb rushed,
- 6. Gale is a name,

Therefore it is

an adjective

a noun.

a verb.

an adverb.

a preposition.

a noun.

Exercise 59. Parse the words in the following sentence according to the first method: The ripe grapes hang on the wall.

Exercise 60. Parse the following in the same way: The gamekeeper shot a brace of partridges with his old gun.

Exercise 61. Parse in the same way: The storks build their nests on the tops of houses in Holland.

Exercise 62. Parse in the same way: The warriors went back to their humble cottages among the mountains.

Exercise 63. Parse in the same way: No farmer reaps if he sows not.

Exercise 64. Parse in the same way: As a fierce storm came on, the boats did not venture out.

SECOND METHOD OF PARSING.

The girl carried her basket of eggs to market.

Word	What it does	What it is
The girl carried her basket of eggs	goes with the noun girl names tells about the girl stands for the noun girl names joins the noun eggs to basket names joins the noun market to carried	Adjective Noun Verb Pronoun Noun Preposition Noun Preposition
market	names	Noun

Exercise 65. Parse the words in the following sentence according to the SECOND METHOD: The boys went to the lakes during the holidays.

Exercise 66. Parse in the same way: In a dream of the night a fair vision I saw.

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Exercise 67 Panse in the same way: And thrice ere the moining I dreamt it again.

Exercise 68 Parse in the same way: The coach passed through Croydon on its way from Brighton to London

Exercise 69. Parse in the same way: The little boy walked on, and soon overtook his friends.

Exercise 70. Parse in the same way: We shall arrive at ten, unless the train is late

THIRD METHOD OF PARSING.

The boy ran after the horse, and soon caught it.

- 1 The is an adjective, because it goes with the noun boy
- 2 Boy is a noun, because it is a name
- 3 Ran is a verb, because it tells us something about the boy
- 4 After is a preposition, or noun joining word, because it joins the noun horse to the verb ran
- $\,\,$ $\,$ And is a sentence joining word or conjunction ; because it joins the two sentences, "The boy ran" and "The boy caught it
 - 6 Soon is an adverb, because it modifies the verb caught
 - 7 Caught is a verb, because it tells us something about the boy
 - 8 It is a pronoun, because it stands for the noun horse.

Exercise 71. Parse the words in the following sentence according to the THIRD METHOD. King Arthur lived a blameless life in the good old times.

Exercise 72 Parse in the same way: The grizzly bear lives in the Rocky Mountains.

Exercise 73. Parse in the same way. A small leak sometimes sinks a great ship.

Exercise 74. Parse in the same way: The oldest elephant in the herd marched in front.

Exercise 75. Parse in the same way: To a level mead they came, and there they drave the wickets in

Exercise 76. Parse in the same way: Pleasantly shone the setting sun over the town of Lynn.

SUMMARY.

- 1. A Noun is a name.
- 2. A Verb is a word that tells something about a noun.
- 3. An Adjective is a word that goes with a noun. It is also called a Noun-marking word
- 4. An Adverb is a word that modifies a Verb, or Adjective, or another Adverb.
- (i) We and No are sometimes called adverbs $\;$ But this is wrong , because they never modify any other word
 - (11) They are really pro-sentences "Is he come? "Yes' (="He is come")
 - 5. A Preposition is a Noun-joining word.
 - 6. A Conjunction is a Sentence-joining word.
 - 7. A Pronoun is a word that stands for a noun.
- 8. An Interjection is a mere sound, and is no essential part of language or of grammar.

ETYMOLOGY. PART II.

Lesson 13.—Kinds of Nouns.

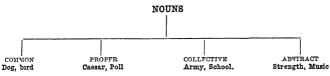
- 1. Nouns (or Names) are of four different kinds.
- (1) Thus we have: John, Mary, London, Thames, England
- (11) A second kind is . Boy, girl, town, river, country.
- (111) A third kind is . Crowd, school, flock, army, shoal.
- (1v) A fourth kind is . Whiteness, wisdom, strength, grammar.
- 2. Nouns which are the names of particular persons or places are called **Proper Nouns**.
- (i) The names John and Mary are proper to some particular boy and girl (are, as it were, their property)
 - (11) The names Thames and England are proper to a particular river and country.
 - (111) Proper Nouns always begin with a capital letter.
- 3. A Noun which is the name of a person, place, or thing, regarded as one of a set or class, is called a Common Noun.
 - (1) The noun boy is common to every boy; the noun girl to every gul, etc.
- (i) A Proper Noun may be used as a common noun. We can say: "He is quite a Hercules" (=very strong man) "He is no Wellington" (=not a great general).
- 4. A noun which is the name of a collection of persons or things regarded as one is called a Collective Noun.

Thus a crowd is a collection of persons; an army is a collection of soldiers, a shoal is a collection of herrings

5. A noun which is the name of a quality or of a set of

thoughts, regarded as abstracted from the things or persons themselves, is called an Abstract Noun.

- (1) Thus Whiteness is a quality of white things, laziness is a quality of lazy persons; strength is a quality of strong persons. Though there is no such thing as whiteness apart from things that are white, we are able to think of whiteness apart from white things.
 - (11) Grammar 13 the name of a set of thoughts about speech or language.
- (111) The following are also abstract nouns; (a) names of passions, as love, hatred, etc.;
 (b) names of actions, as reading, writing, etc; (c) names of arts, as painting, poetry, etc.
 - 6. All this can go in a TABLE:



- (1) When the names of things are personnied, these names become either masculine or feminine. A sailor talks of his ship as she.
- (u) Time, Death, Fear, the Sun are regarded as masculine; Nature, Art, England, Hope, etc., feminine.

Exercise 77. Arrange the following nouns in four columns, under the headings common, proper, collective, and abstract: Chester, herd, blackness, Tom, fox, mob, huntsman, regiment, trunk, York, flock, darkness, crew, wood, gentleness, cruelty, Thames, strength, club (=society), wisdom, Mayor, Chichester, shoal (of herrings), blacksmith.

Exercise 78. Work this Exercise like the preceding: Caesar, dog, American, waterfall, flower, sister, Lucy, zeal, ability, Kent, Wellington, board (=committee), fear, sweetness, congregation, general, gang, covey, ship, poetry, Amazon, baker, sloth (the quality), sloth (animal), party, dinner, crowd, law, light, republic.

ing adjectives: 1. Red. 2. Broad. 3. Foolish. 4. Happy. 5. Patient. 6. Prudent. 7. Steep. 8. Strong. 9. Long. 10. Wilful. 11. Obstinate. 12. Perfect.

Exercise 80. Make ABSTRACT NOUNS out of the following verbs: 1. Strike. 2. Grow. 3. Judge. 4. Fly. 5. Convert. 6. Thieve. 7. Thrive. 8. Steal. 9. Think. 10. Speak. 11. Die. 12. Rob.

Lesson 14.—Kinds of Adjectives.

INTRODUCTORY. We can add to nouns very many kinds of adjectives. We can say of trees that they are high trees, low trees, lofty trees, bure trees, etc. We can say of boys that they are strong boys, weak boys, healthy boys, twenty boys, etc.

1. Some Adjectives answer the question: Of what sort? These are called Adjectives of Quality.

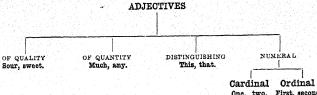
Such are: red, white; happy, sad; strong, weak.

- (i) There are several adjectives that can be used as nouns. Such are: Blue, green, etc.; dark, light; deep, shallow; good, evil; heathen, Christian; square, round, oblong; junior, senior. We can say "a square," and also "a square table," etc.
- (ii) Some of these adjectives even take a plural form, as: goods; greens; whites; eatables; drinkables; juniors, etc. "And voices of the loved ones gone before."
- 2. Some Adjectives answer the question: How much? These are called Adjectives of Quantity.

Such are: Any, many; both, some; few, several; much, little.

- 3. Some Adjectives answer the question: How many? These are called Adjectives of Number or Numeral Adjectives.
 - (i) Such are: One, two, three, twenty, four hundred, etc.
- (ii) If these Numeral Adjectives tell only the number, they are called Cardinal Numerals.
- (iii) If they tell the order, they are called Ordinal Numerals, as first, second, third, twentieth, etc.
- 4. Some Adjectives answer the question: Which? These are called Distinguishing Adjectives.
 - (i) Such are: The; this and that; you and yonder (in poetry); such, etc.
- (ii) The two little words a and the are sometimes called Articles. A is the Indefinite Article; and the the Definite Article. The form an is used before a vowel.

5. All this can go in a TABLE:



One, two. First, second.

adjectives in four

Exercise 81. Arrange the following adjectives in four columns, under the headings adjectives of quality, of quantity, distinguishing and numeral: Bold, merry, any, long, this, two, useful, little (boy), little (sugar), five, that, green, some, the, yonder, dull, no (man), no (bread), a, wise, several.

Exercise 82. Place the adjectives in Exercise 81 with nouns to which they are suitable.

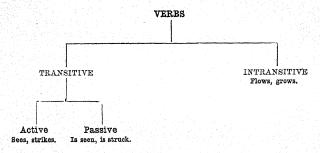
Exercise 83. Classify the adjectives in the following phrases and sentences as in Exercise 81: 1. That book. 2. Some cake and a few oranges. 3. These three pretty kittens. 4. Hand me the third volume of that famous book. 5. Three large pears for one penny. 6. All the money was gone! 7. I bought some Spanish nuts. 8. I never heard such stupid nonsense. 9. The bread was stale, and I had no butter with it. 10. Many strong lads were in the playground. 11. This is just the same old hat. 12. Great cry and little wool.

Exercise 84. Classify the adjectives in the following phrases and sentences as in Exercise 83: 1. This is the first time I ever saw the old man. 2. I had several coins in my pocket. 3. I had not much time left, so I took the earliest train I could find. 4. Four hundred men were drawn up in one long line. 5. Tom is the second boy in his class. 6. Such a noise I never heard before! 7. Both the boys were drowned in the deep lake. 8. He was once a happy man; but he had a sad ending. 9. Have you got any apples? 10. No, but I have some pears.

Lesson 15.—Kinds of Verbs.

- 1. We can say: John built a ship. The ship floats.
 - (i) To say "John built" would not be enough: we need more.

- (ii) The sense of the verb built seems to pass over to the noun ship.
- (iii) The sense of the verb float does not pass over to anything.
- 2. Hence there are two kinds of Verbs: Passing-over and Not-passing-over.
 - (i) The first of these is called Transitive; as strike, cut, feel.
 - (ii) The second is called Intransitive; as run, sleep, walk.
 - (iii) A Transitive Verb requires an object.
 - (iv) An Intransitive Verb does not require an object.
- 3. Transitive Verbs are of two kinds, as in: "I strike the dog." "I am struck."
 - (i) The verb strike is Active Transitive, because it denotes an act.
- (ii) The verb am struck is Passive Transitive, because it shows that the person struck is passive under the striking.
- 4. An intransitive verb may be used transitively; that is, it may be made to take an object.
 - (i) We can say: The groom walked his horse up and down.
 - (ii) Or: The gardener grows large cabbages.
 - (iii) In these sentences, walks = makes walk; grows = makes grow.
 - 5. All this can be set forth in a TABLE:



Exercise 85. Point out in the following sentences the INTRANSITIVE VERBS that are used in a TRANSITIVE SENSE: 1. The boys floated their ship in the cistern. 2. The poor girl

wept many tears. 3. The very stars shone victory on their heads.
4. Captain Webb swam Dover Strait. 5. The groom rode his horse at a gallop. 6. He rained shells and red-hot bullets on the city. 7. Most of the ships that sail the ocean belong to England.
8. The captain told his men to fight the ship as long as she could swim. 9. They ran the poor boy five times round the ring.
10. The woman danced her baby on her knees. 11. After falling into the lake, Dick walked his clothes dry. 12. What he lived was more beautiful than what he wrote.

Exercise 86. In each of the following sentences, state whether the verb is used as a transitive or as an intransitive verb: 1. He augmented his fortune, and his ambition augmented with his fortune. 2. The crowd collected at various points; and the general collected his troops. 3. The crowd dispersed before the troops came up. 4. The surgeon dressed the soldier's wounds. 5. He dressed as rapidly as he could. 6. I felt very unhappy when I heard the news. 7. I felt the caterpillar on my hand. 8. The clouds gathered rapidly while the children were gathering flowers in the meadows. 9. The appearance of the house improved with time. 10. Improve the present hour! 11. He retired into a wood to meditate. 12. The general retired his troops. 13. The crowd broke in all directions. 14. The little girl broke the mirror. 15. Tom is going to fly his kite this afternoon. 16. The bill-sticker sticks his bills everywhere, but he will not stick to the point.

Exercise 87. Arrange the following verbs in three columns, under the headings active-transitive, passive-transitive, intransitive: Run, strikes, is struck, talks, blows, howls, wounds, skates, was seen, behaved, carried, felled, was cut, was eaten, lived, bring, were caught, end, jump.

Exercise 88. Arrange the following verbs in the same way: Dig, was carried, pitched, became, sleeps, lay, valued, found, bumped, bought, is wanted, presented, sits, left, walked, asked, travelled, looked, was punished.

the same way: 1. I met him walking on the bank of the river. 2. The stream flowed gently by. 3. Her uncle promised her a milk-white steed. 4. His mother from the window looked with all the longing of a mother. 5. They

sought him east, they sought him west, they sought him all the forest thorough. 6. He lay down, and closed his eyes. 7. The bishop fell on his knees. 8. He could hear the gnawing of their teeth. 9. No sound of joy or sorrow was heard from either bank. 10. They saw his crest above the surges. 11. The sun looked and saw not a single flag. 12. The ball shivered the window.

Lesson 16.—Kinds of Pronouns. 1.

- 1. We can say: Who did it? I did it. The man who did it has just gone. One never sees him now.
 - (i) In these sentences there are four kinds of pronouns.
 - (ii) In the first, who asks a question, and is called an Interrogative Pronoun.
 - (iii) In the second, I mentions a person, and is called a Personal Pronoun.
 - (iv) In the third, who relates to man, and is called a Relative Pronoun.
- (v) In the fourth, one does not definitely mention anybody, and is therefore an Indefinite Pronoun.
- 2. The pronoun that asks a question is called an Interrogative Pronoun.

Such are: who? which? what?

3. The pronoun that mentions a person is called a Personal Pronoun.

Lesson 17.—Kinds of Pronouns. II.

- 1. There are three Personal Pronouns: (i) the Personal Pronoun of the First Person; (ii) the Personal Pronoun of the Second Person; (iii) the Personal Pronoun of the Third Person.
 - (i) The First Person is the person speaking : as, I, we.
 - (ii) The Second Person is the person spoken to: as, thou, you
 - (iii) The Third Person is the person spoken of: as, he, they.

- 2. The pronoun that relates is called a Relative Pronoun.
- (i) In the sentence, "That is the man who takes care of our garden," the relative pronoun who relates to man.
- (ii) In "This is the book of which I spoke," the relative pronoun which relates to book.
- (iii) There is a kind of Compound Pronoun which is also used as a Relative; as, whose, whoever, whosever.
- 3. A pronoun that does not definitely point to any particular person or persons is called an Indefinite Pronoun.
- (i) In the sentence, "He was off before one could catch him," the pronoun one does not stand for any definite person; and therefore one is an indefinite pronoun.
- (ii) In "Some like one thing, some another," the pronoun some does not point to any particular persons; and some is therefore an indefinite pronoun.
 - (iii) The chief indefinite pronouns are: One, none, any, other, and some.
- 4. Personal pronouns combined with the noun self or selves are called Reflexive Pronouns.

Such are: Myself, ourselves; thyself, yourselves; herself, himself, themselves; itself, one's-self.

Exercise 90. Arrange in columns, under the headings PERSONAL, INTERROGATIVE, RELATIVE, and INDEFINITE, the following pronouns: We; They; Who? What? (the man) who (came); (the fox) that (I saw); one (may say); none (came); I (did not see) any; I (want) some; (the book of) which (I spoke); you; us; which?

Exercise 91. Classify the PRONOUNS in the following sentences: 1. Who is coming with me? 2. He certainly will not. 3. What did he say when you met him? 4. One would never think of doing such a thing. 5. Which of the two did she prefer? 6. I never even dreamt of coming. 7. The soldier who fought so bravely has died of his wounds. 8. Whom did you meet on the road? 9. The fox that was hunted yesterday escaped. 10. He spared himself as much as he could. 11. None spoke a word 12. She hurt herself greatly by the fall,

Lesson 18.—Kinds of Adverbs.

1. Some adverbs answer to the question when? These are called Adverbs of Time.

Such are: Now, then, to-day, to-morrow, by-and-by, etc.

2. Some adverbs answer to the question where? These are called Adverbs of Place.

Such are: Here, there, hither, thither, hence, thence, etc.

3. Some adverbs answer to the question How? These are called Adverbs of Manner,

Such are: Well, ill; pleasantly, crossly; better, worse, etc.

4. Some adverbs answer to the question How often? These are called Adverbs of Number.

Such are: Once, twice, thrice; singly, one-by-one, etc.

5. Some adverbs answer to the question How much? These are called Adverbs of Degree.

Such are: Very, little; almost, quite; all, half, etc.

Little in the phrase little better; all in the phrase all forlorn; and half in the phrase half dronnel.

Exercise 92. Arrange in columns, under the headings ADVERBS OF TIME, OF PLACE, OF NUMBER, OF MANNER, OF DEGREE, the following adverbs: Here, now, there, quickly, too, once, little (better), half (dead), crossly, well, hence, hither, to-morrow, all (undone), swiftly.

Exercise 93. Arrange the following adverbs as in Exercise 92: Away much (better), very, bitterly, presently, quite, so, ill (fared it then with Roderick Dhu), unusually, merrily, exceedingly, extremely, always, still, rather, further, wistfully.

SUMMARY.

1. There are four kinds of Nouns: Proper, Common, Collective, and Abstract.

- 2. There are four kinds of ADJECTIVES: Adjectives of Quality, Adjectives of Quantity, Distinguishing, and Numeral.
- 3. There are two kinds of VERBS: Transitive and Intransitive. Transitive verbs have Two VOICES: Active and Passive.
- 4. There are five kinds of Pronouns: Interrogative, Personal, Relative, Indefinite, and Reflexive.
- 5. There are five kinds of ADVERBS: Adverbs of Time, of Place, of Number, of Manner, and of Degree.

FOURTH METHOD OF PARSING.

Often when I go to plough, the ploughshare turns them out.

- 1. Often is an adverb, because it modifies the verb turns. It is an adverb of time.
- 2. When is a conjunction or sentence-joining word, because it joins the two sentences, "The ploughshare turns them out" and "I go to plough."
- 3. I is a pronoun, because it stands for the name of the person speaking. It is a personal pronoun.
- 4. Go is a verb, because it tells about I. It is an intransitive verb, because it does not require an object.
- 5. To plough is a transitive verb, because it requires the object field (which is understood).
- 6. The is an adjective, because it goes with the noun ploughshare. It is a distinguishing adjective, because it distinguishes this ploughshare (which I use) from others.
 - 7. Them is a pronoun, because it stands for the noun skulls (understood).
 - 8. Out is an adverb, because it modifies the verb turns. It is an adverb of place.

Exercise 94. Parse the words in the following sentences according to the FOURTH METHOD: Three children were sliding on the ice on the lake.

Exercise 95. Parse in the same way: Take off the kettle, and stir the fire!

Exercise 96. Parse in the same way: Mary was the daughter of the king who rules this land.

Exercise 97. Parse in the same way: The pirate-king was slain by one of our warriors.

Exercise 98. Parse in the same way: I, who have seen so many lands, am now grown very old.

Exercise 99. Parse in the same way: The ships will sail forth, whenever the wind sets fair.

Lesson 19.—Words Difficult to Classify. 1.

- 1. As we have already seen, a word is not always, and under all circumstances, a noun or a verb, and adjective or an adverb. It may sometimes be the one, and sometimes the other.
- (i) A bar of iron may be used as a poker, as a weapon, as a lever, as a crowbar, or as a hammer.
- (ii) If it is employed to poke the fire, it is, for the time being, a poker. If it is used to knock down a burglar, it becomes a weapon. If it is employed to move a large stone in a certain manner, then it is a lever. If it is used to prise open a box then it is a crowbar. If it is employed to knock nails into the box, then it is a hammer
- 2. In Old English, verbs and nouns had different endings, and people often knew what a word was by its look. Most of these endings have dropped off and been lost; and now we only know what a word is by noticing what it does, or what word it goes with—that is, what company it keeps.
- (i) In the sentence "I found a hard rock," hard is an adjective, because it goes with the noun rock.
- (ii) In the sentence "He works very hard," hard is an adverb, because it goes with the verb works. And very is itself an adverb, because it goes with the adverb hard.
- (iii) But in the sentence "That is the very man," very is an adjective, because it goes with the noun man.
- 3. What a word does is called its function. We must therefore, in English, always notice the function of the word.
 - (i) A word is a verb if it does the work or performs the function of a verb.
 - (ii) A word is a noun if it does the work or performs the function of a noun.

- 4. In the time of Shakespeare (1564-1616) writers made a very free use of words, and were in the habit of employing nouns as verbs in the most reckless fashion. Thus Shakespeare has the expressions: "Grace me no grace!" "Sir me no sirs!" "Word me no words!"
- (i) Shakespeare has also: "But me no buts!" In this phrase, But, which is usually a conjunction, is used both as a verb and as a noun.
 - (ii) He has also: "Thank me no thanks, and proud me no prouds!"
 - 5. This fashion has held on down even to our own time.
 - (i) "They spanieled me at heels" = they followed me like spaniels.
 - (ii) "To voice him consul" = to proclaim him. "To nose him "= to smell him.
 - (iii) "She captained and sirred him '=she kept calling him captain and sir.
 - (iv) "He battled it long with the first Pitt" = he fought.
- (v) We find also the phrases: "To lord it," "To clown it," "To duke it," "To queen it, =to act as a lord, clown, etc.

Lesson 20.—Words Difficult to Classify. II.

- 1. There are in the English language a number of words which require particular attention, because they are sometimes employed in one way—in one function—and sometimes in another.
- 2. Above may be used as a preposition or as an adverb, or even as an adjective.
- (i) "The hawk hovered above the chaffinch." Here above joins chaffinch to the verb hovered, and is therefore a preposition.
- (ii) "The stars that shine above." Here above goes with the verb shine, and is therefore an adverb.
- (iii) "The above remarks." "The above rule." In these phrases the word above goes with nouns, and is therefore an adjective.
- 3. After may be used as a preposition, or as a conjunction, or as an adverb.

- (i) In the phrase "Grace after meat," after is a preposition, because it joins the two nouns grace and meat.
- (ii) In the sentence "We went out after the rain had stopped," after is a conjunction, because it joins two sentences.
- (iii) In the sentence "My uncle came soon after," after is an adverb, because it goes with the verb came.
 - 4. Any may be used as an adjective or as an adverb.
- (i) In the sentence "Have you any wool?" any is an adjective, because it goes with the noun wool.
- (ii) In the sentence "He cannot write any better," any is an adverb, because it goes with the adverb better.
- 5. As may be used as an adverb or as a conjunction, or even as a relative pronoun.
- (i) "There are as many books on this shelf as on the other." Here as modifies the adjective many, and is therefore an adverb.
- (ii) "Read this as you walk along!" Here as connects two sentences, and is therefore a conjunction.
- (iii) "I do not find such a welcome as I used to receive." Here as relates to the noun welcome, and is therefore a relative pronoun.

Lesson 21.—Words Difficult to Classify. 111.

- 1. Before may be employed as a preposition, as a conjunction, or as an adverb.
- (i) In the sentence "The house stood right before him," before is a preposition, joining house and him, and governing him in the objective case.
- (ii) In the sentence "They arrived before we left," before is a conjunction, because it joins two sentences.
- (iii) In the sentence "She had never seen the sea before," before is an adverb, because it modifies the verb had seen.
- 2. But may be used as a preposition, as a conjunction, or as an adverb.
- (i) In the sentence "All fled but him," but is a preposition joining the pronoun him to the noun persons (understood), and governing him in the objective case.

- (ii) "Many fled, but he stood his ground." Here but is a conjunction, because it joins two sentences.
- (iii) "There was but one apple on the tree." Here but is an adverb, because it modifies the adjective one.

3. Early may be used as an adjective or as an adverb.

- (i) "It is the early bird catches the worm." Here early goes with the noun bird, and is therefore an adjective.
- (ii) "Call me early, mother dear!" Here early modifies the verb call, and is therefore an adverb.

4. Eke may be used as an adverb or as a verb.

- (i) Of John Gilpin it is said, "A train-band captain eke was he" (=also). Here eke is a word that goes with the verb is; it is therefore an adverb.
 - (ii) "He ekes out a precarious living by writing. Here ekes is a verb.

5. Enough may be used as an adjective or as a noun.

- (i) "We had not enough room." Here enough goes with the noun room, and is therefore an adjective.
- (ii) "The boy writes well enough." Here enough modifies the adverb well, and is therefore an adverb.
 - Enough may go either after or before the word it belongs to. We can say "straw enough" or "enough straw.
- (iii) "The lad has enough to do. Here enough is a noun, because it is the name of the amount of work the lad has to do. So also in "We have had enough of action and of motion we.

6. For may be used as a preposition or as a conjunction.

- (i) In the sentence, "I gave sixpence for the book," for is a preposition, because it joins the two nouns sixpence and book.
- (i) "My hat and wig will soon be here, for they are on the road." Here for is a conjunction, because it joins two sentences.

Lesson 22.—Words Difficult to Classify. IV.

1. Hard may be used as an adjective or as an adverb.

- (i) "The chest is made of hard wood." Here hard goes with the noun wood, and is therefore an adjective.
- (ii) "The boy works hard." Here hard goes with the verb works, and is therefore an adverb. In the same way in "The house stands hard by a wood." Here hard modifies the phrase "by a wood"; it is therefore an adverb.

2. Half may be used as a noun, as an adjective, or as an adverb.

- (i) "Half of the troops were killed." Here half is a noun, because it is a name.
- (ii) "I detest half measures." Here half is an adjective, because it goes with the noun measures.
- (iii) "The boy was half dead with cold and wet." Here half is an adverb, because it modifies the adjective dead.

3. Little may be used as an adjective, as an adverb, or as a noun.

- (i) "I met a little cottage girl." Here little is an adjective, because it goes with the noun girl.
- (ii) "I thought little of it." Here little is an adverb, because it modifies the verb thought.
- (iii) "Do not give me so much; I only want a little." Here little is a noun, because it is a name.

4. Less may be used as an adjective or as an adverb.

(i) "Of two evils we must choose the less (evil)." Here less is an adjective, because it goes with the noun evil (understood).

Another form of less is lesser. We have it in the phrases: "Lesser Asia" (for Asia Minor), and "the lesser light to rule the night." Lesser is a "double comparative."

(ii) "He loves me less now than he did before." Here less is an adverb, because it modifies the verb loves.

5. Least may be employed as an adjective or as an adverb.

- (i) "The boy had not the least idea what I meant." Here least is an adjective, because it goes with the noun idea.
- (ii) "And yet he was the least stupid of all the boys." Here least is an adverb, because it modifies the adjective stupid.

6. Much, more, most may be used as adjectives, or as adverbs.

- (i) "I like this much, that more, the other most." Here much, more, and most modify the verb like, and are therefore adverbs.
- (ii) "Much wool; more wool; most wool." Here these words are plainly adjectives.

Lesson 23.—Words Difficult to Classify. v.

- 1. Next may be used as an adjective, or an adverb, or a preposition.
- (i) "We will take the next train." Here next goes with the noun train, and is therefore an adjective.
 - (ii) "You fire next!" Here next goes with the verb fire, and is therefore an adverb.
- (iii) "He wears the locket next his heart." Here next joins the noun heart to the verb wears, and is therefore a preposition.
 - 2. No may be used as an adjective or as an adverb.
- (i) "We saw no ship." No here goes with the noun ship, and is therefore an adjective.
- (ii) "I saw him no more." Here no modifies the adverb more (which itself modifies 13W), and is therefore an adverb.
- 3. Off may be used as an adjective, as an adverb, as a preposition, and as an interjection.
- (i) "The off horse was restive." Here off is an adjective, because it goes with the noun horse.
 - (ii) "The thief ran off." Here off modifies the verb ran, and is therefore an adverb.
- (iii) "The boy fell off the wall." Here off joins wall and fell, and is therefore a preposition.
 - (iv) "Off! you thief!" Here off is an interjection.
 - 4. Only may be used as an adjective or as an adverb.
- (i) "He was the only person in the room." Here only goes with the noun person, and is therefore an adjective.
- (ii) "He has only one eye." Here only modifies the adjective one, and is therefore an adverb.
- 5. Round may be used as a noun or as a verb; as an adjective or as an adverb; and it may even be employed as a preposition.
 - (i) "A round of beef." Here round is a noun, because it is a name.
- (ii) "The hollow crown that rounds the mortal temples of a king." Here rounds tells about the word that, and is therefore a verb.

- (iii) "A good round sum." "A round apple." In these phrases round goes with nouns, and is therefore an adjective.
- (iv) "Bring the pony round at ten!" Here round modifies the verb bring, and is therefore an adverb.
- (v) "He has sailed round the world." Here round connects the noun world with the verb sailed, and is therefore a preposition.

Lesson 24.—Words Difficult to Classify. vi.

- 1. Since may be used as a preposition, as a conjunction, or as an adverb.
- (i) "I have not seen him since last spring." Here since joins the noun spring to the verb have seen, and is therefore a preposition.
- (ii) "Since he will have it, let him have it." Here since joins together two sentences, and is therefore a conjunction. (It joins these two sentences like a natl.)
- (iii) "We parted at the station, and we have never met since." Here since modifies the verb met, and is therefore an adverb.
- 2. That may be used as an adjective, as a relative pronoun, or as a conjunction.
- (i) "That man was there." In this sentence that goes with the noun man, and is therefore an adjective.
- (ii) "The man that was there has come to see you." Here that relates to the noun man, and is therefore a relative pronoun.
- (iii) "I know that John is better." Here the word that joins two sentences, and is therefore a conjunction.
- (iv) When we say "I know that," the word that looks like a noun. But it is really an adjective; for it is plain that the noun fuct or statement is understood.
- 3. Well may be used as an adjective or as an adverb; as an interjection; and sometimes even as a noun.
- (i) "The king is not well." Here well goes with the noun king; it is therefore an adjective.
 - We can say "The boy is well"; but we cannot say "A well boy." Hence it must be observed that well is one of those adjectives that may be used predicatively (or in the predicate), but never attributively.
- (ii) "He knew well who had done it." Here well modifies the verb knew, and is therefore an adverb.

- (iii) "Well! well! I should not have believed it!" Here well is an interjection.
- (iv) "Leave well alone." Here well is the name of a state of things; it is therefore a noun.
- 4. Why may be used as an adverb or as a conjunction; even as a noun, and sometimes as an interjection.
- (i) "Why did you speak in that manner?" Here why modifies the verb did speak, and is therefore an adverb.
- (ii) "I asked him why he did it." Here why connects two sentences, and is therefore a conjunction.
- (iii) "Tell me the why and the wherefore.' Here why is a noun, in the objective case, governed by the verb tell.
 - (iv) "Why! Jessica, I say!" Here why is an interjection.
 - 5. Yet may be used as an adverb or as a conjunction.
- (i) "Has he heard the good news yet?" Here yet modifies the verb has heard, and is therefore an adverb.
- (ii) "I urged it on him, yet he would not answer me." Here yet connects together two sentences, and is therefore a conjunction.

ETYMOLOGY. PART III.

Lesson 25.—The Inflexion of Words.

1. Words are changed for a great many purposes.

The word inflexion is a Latin word which means a bending.

- (i) Thus boy may be changed into boys; ox into oxen.
- (ii) Small may be changed into smaller, or into smallest.
- (iii) Speak may be changed into spoke, or into spoken.
- 2. Nouns may be inflected: as in child, children.

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- 3. Pronouns may be inflected: as in he, him.
- 4. Verbs may be inflected: as in write, writes.
- 5. Adjectives may be inflected: as in happy, happier.
- 6. Adverbs may be inflected: as in worse, worst.

He writes worse than John; but Tom writes worst of all.

7. The only kinds of words that are not inflected are prepositions and conjunctions.

Lesson 26. The Inflexion of Nouns. 1.

- 1. We can say horses, oxen, teeth, to show that we are speaking of more than one horse, ox, or tooth. This is called Inflexion for Number.
 - 2. There are in Grammar two numbers: Singular and Plural.
 - (i) The word Singular means Cne.
 - (ii) The word Plural means More than one.
- 3. There are in the English language three different ways of forming the plural: (i) By adding es or s to the Singular; (ii) By adding en; (iii) By changing the vowel.
 - 4. First Mode.—The Plural is formed by adding es or s:

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Boy	Boys	Girl	Girls
Box	Boxes	Lady	Ladies
Witch	Witches	Loaf	Loaves
Hero	Heroes	Thief	Thieves

- (i) The old spelling of lady was ladie; and this old spelling is preserved in the plural. But this accident has given rise to two Rules of Spelling:
 - (a) Y, with a vowel before it, is not changed in the plural. Thus we write keys, valleys, chimneys, etc.
 - (b) Y, with a consonant before it, is changed. We write ladies, rubies, glories, etc.

- (ii) Nouns that end in s, sh, ch, x, or z take es in the plural. Thus we write: Omnibuses; fishes; churches; boxes; topazes.
 - (iii) The thin labial f becomes v in the plural : loaf, loaves.
 - (iv) But: Cliff, dwarf, fife, grief, hoof, roof, strife, etc., keep the f.

Exercise 100. Give, or write down, the plurals of: Boy, fox, galley, chimney, ruby, potato, fly, loaf, thief, valley, negro, calf.

Lesson 27. The Inflexion of Nouns. II.

1. Second Mode. - The Plural is formed by adding en or ne:

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Ox	Oxen	Child	Children
Cow	Vine	Brother	Brethren

- (i) There are, in some of the older English poets, such plurals as Been (bees); fleen (fleas); toon (toes); and treen (trees).
- (ii) Children and brethren are in reality double plurals. There were old Northern plurals childer and brether. It was forgotten that these were true plurals, and en was added on.
- 2. Third Mode.—The Plural is formed by changing the vowel:

SINGULAR. PLURAL.		SINGULAR. PI	
Foot	Feet	Man	Men
Goose	Geese	Mouse	Mice
* Louse	Lice	Tooth	Teeth

3. Some English Nouns have two plural forms with different meanings.

SINGULAR.	FIRST PLURAL.	SECOND PLURAL.
1. Brother	Brothers (in a family)	Brethren (in a Church, etc.
2. Cloth	Cloths (kinds of cloth)	Clothes (for wearing)
3. Die	Dies (stamps for coining)	Dice (for gambling)
4. Fish	Fishes (taken separately)	Fish (collectively)
5. Genius	Geniuses (men of great talent)	Genii (powerful spirits)
6. Pea	Peas (separately)	Pease (collectively)
7. Penny	Pennies (separately)	Pence (collectively)
8. Shot	Shots (acts of shooting)	Shot (collectively)

(i) We say also bed-clothes.

(ii) We say six pennies, if six copper coins are meant. But when we say sixpence, it may mean one coin, or two three-penny pieces, etc. etc.

Exercise 101. Give, or write down, the plurals of: Mouse, tooth, die (2), fish (2), cloth (2), penny (2), brother (2), shot (2).

Lesson 28.—The Inflexion of Nouns. III.

- 1. Some English Nouns have the same form in the Plural as in the Singular; as, Deer, cod, sheep, trout, etc.
 - (i) In Old English, people said Sixty winter, Thirty summer, for winters, etc.
 - (ii) We still say: "A man six foot high"; "Ten stone weight," etc.
- 2. There are some nouns with a plural form but a singular meaning: such as Gallows, news, tidings, smallpox, measles, mumps, odds, pains, wages, thanks, etc.
 - (i) Smallpox = small pocks (or pockets).
 - (ii) Pains in the sense of taking great pains to do a thing well.
- (iii) Shakespeare says: "This news hath made thee a most ugly man." And we generally say "a means to an end"; "wages is good," etc.
- 3. The English Language has adopted many foreign plurals. The following are the most important:—

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. Latin	Datum Formula	Data Formulae	Stratum Species	Strata Species •
2. Greek	Analysis Parenthesis	Analyses Parentheses	Axis Phenomenon	Axes Phenomena
3. French	Monsieur	Messieurs (Messrs.)	Madam	Mesdames
4. Italian	Bandit	Banditti	Dilettante	Dilettanti
5. Hebrew	Cherub	Cherubim	Seraph	Seraphim

4. In a compound noun, the sign of the plural must be attached to the leading word, as in:

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Son-in-law	Sons-in-law	Attorney-General	Attorney-Generals
Hanger-on	Hangers-on	Court-martial	Court-martials
Looker-on	Lookers-on	Fellow-servant	Fellow-servants

- (i) We say spoonfuls and handfuls, because spoonful and handful are regarded as one word.
- (ii) Some compound nouns take the plural signs in both their parts, as in: Menservants; Knights-Templars; Lords-Justices, etc.

Exercise 102. Give, or write down, the plurals of: Datum, formula, cherub, analysis, phenomenon, axis, parenthesis, bandit, court-martial, hanger-on, spoonful, son-in-law.

Lesson 29.—The Inflexion of Nouns. IV.

- 1. Gender is, in Grammar, the mode of distinguishing sex.
- (i) We say: Author, Authoress; Count, Countess; Emperor, Empress.
- (ii) We say: He-goat, she-goat; cock-sparrow, hen-sparrow.
- (iii) We say; Boy, girl; brother, sister; king, queen.
- 2. There are three ways of marking gender: (i) By Suffixes; (ii) By Prefixes; (iii) By Different Words.
 - (i) A suffix is an addition made to a word which comes after it.
 - (ii) A prefix is an addition made to a word which comes before it.
- 3. The following are the most important Suffixes for Gender:—

	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
1. English	Fox	Vixen	Spinner	Spinster
2. French	Abbot	Abbess	Lad	Lass (=ladess)
	Actor	Actress	Marquess	Marchioness
	Ambassador	Ambassadress	Master	Mistress
16	Baron	Baroness	Mayor	Mayoress
	Benefactor	Benefactress	Negro	Negress
	Duke	Duchess	Peer	Peeress
	Emperor	Empress	Poet	Poetess
	Giant	Giantess	Prince	Princess
	Heir	Heiress	Prophet	Prophetess
	Host	Hostess	Songster	Songstress
	Hunter	Huntress	Viscount	Viscountess

- (i) The Old English way of forming the feminine was by adding ster. Thus tapper (one who draws beer) had tapster as its feminine.
 - (ii) We still have many of these words; but most of them have become proper

names. Thus we have sangster (=a female singer); Baxter (=a bakeress); and Webster (=a female weaver).

(iii) We also had Fithelster (=a female fiddler), and Raedester (a female reader).

Exercise 103. Give, or write down, the feminines of: Fox, duke, spinner, poet, prophet, heir, lad, master, emperor, viscount, ambassador, negro.

Lesson 30.—The Inflexion of Nouns. v.

1. The following are the most important Prefixes for Gender (with some compounds):—

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE,
Bull-calf	Cow-calf	Jack-ass	Jenny-ass
Billy-goat	Nanny-goat	Man-servant	Maid-servant
Cock-sparrow	Hen-sparrow	Man	Woman (=wife-man)
He-goat	She-goat	Pea-cock	Pea-hen
He-ass	She-ass	Turkey-cock	Turkey-hen

- (i) We have also such forms as jack-daw, jack-snipe—with no feminine for them; and jenny-wren—with no masculine.
- (ii) An Old English way of marking gender was by prefixing carl for the masculine; and ewen (=queen) for the feminine. Thus carl-fugol=cock-fowl; and ewen-fugol=hen-fowl.
- 2. The following are the chief examples of distinguishing gender by Different Words:—

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
Bachelor	Maid	Horse	Mare
Boy	Girl	Husband	Wife
Brother	Sister	King	Queen
Buck	Doe	Lord	Lady
Bull	Cow	Man	Woman
Bullock	Heifer	Monk	Nun
Colt	Filly	Nephew	Niece
Drake	Duck	Ram	Ewe
Drone	Bee	Sir	Madam
Earl	Countess	Sloven	SInt
Father	Mother	Son	Daughter
Gander	Goose	Stag	Hind
Gentleman	Lady	Uncle	Aunt
Hart	Roe	Wizard	Witch

- (i) Drake was, in an older form, endrake—a compound word which means king of the ducks (End = duck and rake = king).
 - (ii) Earl is a Danish word; countess is French.
 - (iii) Sir comes from Latin senior (=elder). Madam = ma dame (my lady) is French.

Exercise 104. Give or write down, the masculines of: Nanny-goat, pea-hen, lady, niece, heifer, filly, goose, jenny-ass, daughter, nun, doe, maid, witch, roe.

Lesson 31.—The Inflexion of Nouns. vi.

- 1. There are in the grammar of our language four genders: Masculine, Feminine, Neuter, and Common.
 - (i) Masculine are: Man, boy, horse, brother, gentleman, etc.
 - (ii) Feminine are: Woman, girl, mare, sister, lady.
 - (iii) Neuter are : Axe, chair, desk, table, tree, wave.
 - (iv) Common are : Bird, beast, fish, hawk, parent, servant.
- 2. Names of things that are neither masculine nor feminine are of the Neuter Gender; as, head, book, London, America.

The word neuter is a Latin word meaning neither.

3. Names of things that may be either masculine or feminine are of the Common Gender; as, brute, companion, cousin, relative.

The gender of the noun is common both to the masculine and the feminine.

4. All this may be set forth in a TABLE:

GENDER OF NOUNS

Masculine Feminine Neuter Common (or Neither). (or Either). Top, toy. Dancer, servant.

5. The **Common Genders** of nouns may be thus contrasted with their **masculines** and **feminines**:

Common.	Masc.	Fem.	Common.	Masc.	Fem.
Ass	jackass	jenny-ass	Goat	he-goat	she-goat
Bear	he-bear	she-bear	Pig	boar-pig	sow-pig
Calf	bull-calf	cow-calf	Rabbit	buck-rabbit	doe-rabbit
Elephant	bull-elephant	cow-elephant	Servant	man-servant	maid-servant

EXERCISE 105. Arrange, in four columns, under the headings MASCULINE, FEMININE, NEUTER and COMMON, the following nouns: Boy, huntsman, shepherd, bride, tree, witness, porter, cousin, sempstress, teacher, duck, colt, stable, wizard, follower, priest, nun, heir, relative, book.

Exercise 106. Work this like Exercise 105: Companion, maid, servant, table, friend, brute, dancer, sempstress, peer, stag, moorhen, child, guardian, sloven, sparrow, trick, toy, vixen, pig, horse.

Exercise 107. Work this like Exercise 105: Nut, tigress, city, fiend, class, aunt, fowl, eagle, write, author, poet, table, rock, cottage, bed, doctor, lawyer.

Lesson 32.—The Inflexion of Nouns. VII.

- 1. We can say: (i) Henry saw Tom. (ii) Tom saw Henry. (iii) Henry's hat flew off.
 - (i) In the first sentence, Henry is the subject of saw.
 - (ii) In the second, Henry is the object of saw.
 - (iii) In the third, Henry's shows Henry to be the possessor of the hat.
 - (iv) In each of the three sentences Henry is in a different case.
 - 2. There are in the English Language five cases:
 - (i) The Nominative or Case of the Subject; as, Harry can skate.
 - (ii) The Possessive or Possessing Case; as, Harry's finger is cut.
 - (iii) The Dative or Given-to Case; as, Give the lady a chair.
 - (iv) The Objective (or Done-to case) or Case of the Object; as, He struck the robber.
 - (v) The Vocative or Spoken-to Case; as, John! come here!

ATT The only case that has a form of its own is the Possessive.

- 3. The Nominative Case answers the question: Who? or what?
 - (i) "Who killed the sparrow?" "John killed the sparrow."
 - (ii) "What ails the boy?" "The toothache ails him."

Lesson 33.—The Inflexion of Nouns. VIII.

1. The Possessive Case answers the question: Whose?

Whose hat is this? It is Tom's hat.

- (a) The possessive case of Nouns always has a little mark called an apoströphö. This is to show that an c has been left out. The old possessive of boy was boyes: thus boy's. In the last century, people printed hop'd, walk'd, for hoped, walked.
- (b) In the possessive plural, the comes after the s.
- (c) When the plural ends in en, both ' and s are added-as "The children's toys."
- 2. The Dative Case answers the question: For whom or to whom?
- (i) I built the boy a little ship. Here boy is the dative case; because I built the ship for the boy.
- (ii) They gave Harry a whip. Here Harry is in the dative case; because they gave to Harry a whip.
 - (iii) In the sentence (in Shakespeare's Henry v.);
 - (a) Heaven send the Prince a better companion!
- Prince is in the dative case; but in the sentence
- (b) Heaven send the companion a better Prince! Companion is in the dative case.
- 3. The Objective Case answers to the question: Whom? or What?
- (i) In the sentence "I struck John," John is in the objective case, because it answers the question "Whom did you strike?"
- (ii) In " I upset the table," table is in the objective case, because it answers the question "What did you upset?"
 - 4. The Vocative Case is not spoken-of, but spoken-to.
 - (i) "Tom! run away!" "Mary! have you seen your brother?"
 - (ii) In these sentences Tom and Mary are in the vocative case.
 - (iii) The vocative case is also called the Nominative of Address.

Exercise 108. Arrange the nouns in the following sentences in five columns, under the headings: Nominative, Possessive, dative, objective, and vocative. 1. John's hat flew off. 2. Tom! come and help me to lift this stone. 3. Uncle Sam bought his nephew a new hat. 4. Porter! please unlock this carriage. 5. Frank will drive Mary to the fair. 6. The coach-

man brought John's brother Henry home from school. 7. The coachman brought John's brother Henry a rabbit. 8. Hand Lucy some cherries. 9. The girls carried flowers to deck their mother's grave.

Exercise 109. Work this Exercise like the above. 1. Johnnie, bring Amy some strawberries. 2. The squire gave every workman a goose for his Christmas dinner. 3. John's hat fell into the river. 4. The boys' fathers were all present in the hall. 5. You villains! leave this house at once! 6. The gardener brought the pig some cabbage-leaves. 7. The traveller found a bag lying on the sea-shore. 8. Hand the lady a chair,

Exercise 110. Work this Exercise like the above. 1. O Mary, go and call the cattle home! 2. And then, amid their scattered band, raged the fierce rider's bloody brand. 3. Only a flower's brief life was given her. 4. The ploughshare turns out the skulls. 5. The women trimmed the lamps as the sun went down. 6. Britannia needs no bulwarks. 7. We got the ladies a few ices. 8. John's father built his son a little ship.

Exercise 111. Work this Exercise like the above. His father gave the boy a watch. 2. The master did the culprits full justice. 3. The King offered Mr. Pitt a seat in the cabinet. 4. Tell Tom a story, mother! 5. The elder girls set their younger friends a good example. 6. We sent the coachman a turkey last week. 7. We waved the lady a last farewell. 8. Bring the gentleman a chair. 9. The old woman fetched her dog a bone. 10. Forgive the child his error, dear friend! 11. I lent John my copy of Tennyson. 12. The boys played the old woman a shabby trick. 13. I have just paid my landlord his rent. 14. The keeper showed the boys the lions. 15. The gamekeeper flung the mastiff a bone. 16. Grant the schoolboys a longer holiday!

Lesson 34.—The Inflexion of Pronouns. 1.

1. The following are the Inflexions of the First Personal Pronoun:

	SII	NGULAR.	PLURAL.
1.	Nominative	I	We
2.	Possessive	Mine (or My)	Our (or Ours)
3.	Dative	Me	Us
4.	Objective	Ме	Us

- (i) The dative case of I is preserved in such words and phrases as Methinks, Methought; Woe is me! Give me the plate!
 - (ii) Methinks means it seems to me, etc.
- 2. The following are the Inflexions of the Second Personal Pronoun:

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. Nominative	Thou	You (or Ye)
2. Possessive	Thine (or Thy)	Your (or Yours)
3. Dative	Thee	You
4. Objective	Thee	You
5. Vocative	Thou	You (or Ye!)

- (i) My, thy. our, and your always go with nouns.
- (ii) Mine, thine, ours, and yours, never go with nouns: they always come after them, and are joined to nouns by is or are. (Or we can say: Mine, thine, etc., are always used in the Predicate)

Lesson 35.—The Inflexion of Pronouns. 11.

1. The following are the Inflexions of the Third Personal Pronoun:

		SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.	ALL GENDERS.	
1. Nominative	He	She	It	They	
2. Possessive	His	Her (or Hers)	Its	Their (or Theirs)	
2. Dative	Him	Her	It	Them	
4. Objective	Him	Her	I t	Them	

- (i) The old form of It was Hit, the t being the neuter ending of He. Hit lost the h and became It.
- (ii) Its is a modern word. It is not found in our version of the Bible, which was published in 1611; and it did not come into regular use till the end of the seventeenth century. The right possessive of It is His.
- (iii) Ours, yours, hers, and theirs are double possessives; and they can only be used apart from nouns, or "in the predicate."
- 2. Personal Pronouns compounded with self and selves are called Reflexive Pronouns.

- (i) "John hurt himself." Here himself is reflexive; because the pronoun reflects back, as it were, on John.
- (ii) "They built themselves a hut." Here themselves is a reflexive pronoun in the dative case.

Exercise 112. Give the case and number of the PRONOUNS in the following sentences: 1. We saw her in the garden. 2. My uncle brought me a watch from Birmingham. 3. I gave them the books they wanted. 4. The king's eldest son succeeded him after his death. 5. Hallo! you! come here as fast as you can! 6. I shall not tell you where we found it. 7. The sad news was brought him as he was walking in his garden. 8. His cousins played him a very shabby trick.

Exercise 113. Give the number and case of the PRONOUNS in the following sentences: 1. We have lent them our old football.

2. Will you go with us in our cab? 3. She wants you to come with her to her aunt's.

4. Jack has hurt his ankle: he sprained it when he was skating.

5. Tom cut himself with his knife.

6. They have no fear for themselves, but only for their children.

7. My son, if sinners entice thee, consent thou not.

8. John, will you go and fetch me the watering-can?

Exercise 114. Repeat (or write out) the inflexions of I and THOU.

Exercise 115. Repeat (or write out) the inflexions of HE, SHE, and IT.

Exercise 116. Make six sentences: two with a pronoun in the objective case; two with a pronoun in the dative case; and two with a pronoun in the vocative case.

Lesson 36.—The Inflexion of Pronouns. III.

1. Pronouns used in asking questions are called Interrogative Pronouns. They are inflected thus:

SINGULAR AND PLURAL.

	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER
1. Nominative	Who?	Who?	What?
2. Possessive	Whose?	Whose?	
3. Objective	Whom*	Whom?	What?

- (i) Which? is also used as an Interrogative (Distributive) Pronoun; as in the sentence "Which of them did you meet?"
 - (ii) Whether? is also an Interrogative Pronoun; and it means which of two?

2. The Inflexions of Relative Pronouns are as follows:

SINGULAR AND PLURAL.

		MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.
1.	Nominative	Who	Who	Which
2.	Possessive	Whose	Whose	Whose (or of which)
3.	Objective	Whom	Whom	Which

- (i) That is also a relative pronoun; but it is not inflected.
- •(ii) What is a compound relative=that+which; as in the sentence, "This is what I want."

Exercise 117. State which of the pronouns in the following sentences are interrogative and which relative: 1. The dog that barked so loud and so long was sent away. 2. The captain threatened to shoot the first person who should attempt to leave the ship. 3. The boys, whose fathers were present, were highly praised by their master. 4. Who goes there? 5. What did he say to you? 6. The cows which you saw in the meadow have been sold. 7. Which of the two do you prefer? 8. The man whose house was robbed is now in court. 9. Whose book did you take? 10. This is just what I wanted. 11. Whom did he mean? 12. What did you hear about him?

Exercise 118. Make six sentences, in three of which WHO is used as a relative, and in three as an interrogative, pronoun.

Exercise 119. Repeat (or write out) the inflexions of who and who.

Lesson 37.—The Inflexion of Adjectives. I.

1. The English Adjective has lost all its inflexions for Gender and for Case; but it still keeps two for Number.

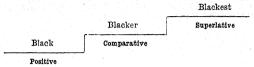
We say A good man; and also A good woman. There is no change.

2. These two inflexions are:

SINGULAR. PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
This These	That	Those

- 3. Adjectives are also inflected for Comparison.
- 4. There are three Degrees of Comparison: Positive, Comparative, and Superlative.

The word degree means step; thus:



- 5. When two things are compared, we employ the Comparative Degree.
 - (i) We say nice, nicer; happy, happier; cruel, crueller.
- (ii) But, when the adjective is of three syllables, or of two syllables, the last of which ends in a consonant, we use the adverbs more and most; and we say comfortable, more comfortable, most comfortable.
 - (iii) The Comparative Degree means a step higher.
 - (iv) When we say green, greener, the comparative degree is = green, but more so.
- 6. When three things are compared, we employ the Superlative Degree.
 - (i) We say tall, taller, tallest; handsome, handsomer, handsomest.
 - (ii) The Superlative Degree means the highest step.
 - (iii) When we say greenest, the superlative degree is = green, but most so.

Lesson 38.—The Inflexion of Adjectives. II.

1. The following Adjectives are very irregular in their mode of comparison:

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.	POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
Bad)			Little	less	least
Evil	worse	worst	Many)		
m J			Much J	more	most
Far	farther	farthest	Nigh	nigher	nighest
[Forth]	further	furthest	Near	nearer	nearest (or
Fore	former	foremost			next)
Good	better	best	014	∫ older	oldest
Hind	hinder	hindmost	Oid .	elder	eldest
In	inner	innermost		(outmost
Late /	1ater	latest	Out	outer {	outermost
1	Litter	last	to a series		ntmost

- (i) Worse and worst are really from an old adjective weor (=evil).
- (ii) First is really a superlative of fore.
- (iii) Better and best are from an old adjective bet (=good).
- (iv) Later and latest refer to time; latter and last to position in space.
- (v) Nearest refers to space; next to order in succession. "He was next in succession to the crown."
 - (vi) Older and oldest refer to a number; elder and eldest to a family.
- (vii) Rather is the comparative of an old adjective which means early. Milton speaks of "the rathe primrose."
- 2. The little adjectives a, an, and the were at one time called Articles. An was called the indefinite, and the the definite, article. They cannot be compared.
- (i) An is a broken-down form of ane—which was the Northern form of one (formerly pronounced oan).
- (ii) An has this odd peculiarity, that it sometimes loses its n—and this n has a knack of cleaving to the next word. Thus an og was the Danish word for a horse; the n stuck to the og, and it became a nag. An ewt (= eft) became a newt.
- (iii) The opposite also happened. Thus a napron (connected with napkin, napery, etc.), became an apron.
- (iv) In an old grammar the following misdivisions have been found: a naxe (= an axe); a neagle (= an eagle); a nearl (= an earl).
 - Exercise 120. Compare the following adjectives: Strong, coarse, fat, busy, big, smooth, stately, fine, old.
 - Exercise 121. Compare the following adjectives: Splendid, grand, pleasant, nice, foolish, wise, large, merry, hoarse.
 - Exercise 122. Compare the following adjectives: Welcome, blue, interesting, white, happy, holy, magnificent, earnest, lovely.
 - Exercise 123. Compare the following adjectives: Late, greedy, evil, near, little, far, remote, true, fore, many, hind, gay.
 - Exercise 124. Select the adjectives in the COMPARATIVE degree in the following sentences, and place on either side of them the nouns compared: 1. Tom is taller than Harry. 2. St. Paul's is larger than Westminster. 3. The hippopotamus is a fatter animal than the rhinoceros. 4. Mount Everest is higher than Mont Blanc. 5. The east wind is colder than the west. 6. Jane's

complexion is fairer than Susan's. 7. This inn is more crowded than the Blue Lion. 8. Millais is a finer artist than Leighton. 9. The road to Newhaven is longer than the road to Brighton.

Lesson 39.—The Inflexion of Verbs. 1.

- 1. We can say (i) "The cat killed the mouse"; or (ii) "The mouse was killed by the cat." The verb killed is in the Active Voice, the verb was killed in the Passive Voice.
- 2. When the verb is in the Active Voice, the subject of the sentence is the doer of the action.
 - (i) "The cat killed the mouse." Here the cat is the subject of the sentence.
 - (ii) The cat is likewise the doer of the action.
- 3. When the Verb is in the Passive Voice, the subject of the sentence is the object of the action.
 - (i) "The mouse was killed." Here the mouse is the subject.
 - (ii) The mouse is the object of the action of killing.
- 4. In changing a verb from the active voice into the passive voice, the **object** of the **active** verb is altered into the **subject** of the **passive** verb:

ACTIVE.

PASSIVE.

- (i) The boy caught the ball.
- (ii) The master praised the girl.
- (iii) We saw the enemy.

The ball was caught by the boy.

The girl was praised by the master.

The enemy was seen by us.

Exercise 125. Place in separate columns the verbs in the active, and those in the passive, Voice. 1. The landlord had just killed his pig. 2. The general defeated the enemy. 3. The boy was killed by lightning. 4. If I cast the sword away, a precious thing will be lost. 5. We were well covered with wraps. 6. Edward the Confessor made a will. 7. The poacher caught two hares. 8. It is pleasant to be awakened by the lark. 9. The troops were protected on the left by marshy ground. 10. The cruel uncle did the poor babes a foul wrong. 11. The

old gentleman carved the goose; the lady, the turkey. 12. The prisoner was shot at four in the morning.

Exercise 126. Turn the ACTIVE VERBS in Exercise 125 into the PASSIVE VOICE.

Exercise 127. Turn the Passive verbs in Exercise 125 into the active voice.

Exercise 128. Turn the Passive Verbs in the following sentences into the active voice: 1. The Exhibition was opened by the Prince of Wales. 2. The porter was sent for by the Director. 3. By whom was this mirror broken? 4. Many battles were won by Wellington. 5. The burglar was arrested by X 221. 6. A long letter was drawn up by the Secretary. 7. The Lady of the Lake was written by Sir Walter Scott. 8. The lawn was trimmed yesterday by one of the gardeners.

Exercise 129. Turn the active verbs into the passive voice: 1. The lightning struck the church-tower. 2. The recitation pleased the audience. 3. The thieves robbed the merchant's house. 4. This baker sells very good bread. 5. The ploughman robbed the crow's nest. 6. The woodman felled three thick oaks, 7. The sudden noise frightened the horse. 8. The child was teasing the puppy. 9. My mother received a letter yesterday from Mary. 10. The guide knows the way well. 11. The reapers drank up all the beer. 12. The sailors will launch the boat at twelve.

Lesson 40.—The Inflexion of Verbs. II.

1. We can say: (i) The captain led his men; (ii) Captain, lead your men on! (iii) If the captain lead the men well, they will fight well; (iv) The captain likes to lead his men. These are different moods of the verb lead.

The word mood means simply manner, manner of presenting a word to the mind.

- (i) In the first sentence, the verb led states or asserts a simple fact.
- (ii) In the second, the verb lead gives an order or command.
- (iii) In the third, lead states not a fact, but a supposition.
- (iv) In the fourth, to lead is the object of the verb likes, and is simply a kind of noun.

- 2. There are four moods: the Indicative, the Imperative, the Subjunctive, and the Infinitive.
- 3. The Indicative Mood is the mood of direct assertion, or it puts a question in a direct manner.
- (i) "John has gone to London" That is a direct assertion, and the verb is gone is in the Indicative Mood.
- (ii) "Is John gone to London?" That is a question put in a direct manner, and the verb is gone is in the Indicative Mood.

Lesson 41.—The Inflexion of Verbs. III.

- 1. The Imperative Mood is the mood of command, request, and entreaty.
 - (i) "Go on ahead!" That is a command.
 - (ii) "Please pass the salt!" That is a request.
 - (iii) "Do come back!" That is an entreaty.
- 2. The Subjunctive Mood is the mood employed in subjoined sentences or clauses.
- (i) "I will go, if you will go too." The sentence "(if) you will go too" is subjoined to the main sentence "I will go."
- (ii) "You would not speak so of him, were he here." The sentence or clause were he here is subjoined to the main sentence "you would not speak so of him."
- (iii) The Subjunctive Mood had at one time a different form from the Indicative; but this is now very seldom used. Thus we said, "If I be, if thou be, if he be," etc.; but we now say simply, "If he is," etc.
 - 3. The Infinitive Mood is simply the name of the verb.

The word Infinitive means without limits; and this mood is so called, because it is not limited by a subject—or by person or number.

- (i) The Infinitive being the name of the verb, it is really a noun.
- (ii) As a noun, it may be in the nominative or in the objective case.
- (iii) "To play is pleasant." Here to play is in the nominative case.
- (iv) "I like to play." Here to play is in the objective case.

Exercise 130. Arrange in four columns, under the headings INDICATIVE, IMPERATIVE, SUBJUNCTIVE, and INFINITIVE, the rerbs

in the following sentences: 1. Mr. Wilson called this morning. 2. Go to the tool-house and fetch me a hammer. 3. The frost had covered the pond with a sheet of thick ice. 4. If he were here, he would not permit it. 5. Sleep and rest, sleep and rest: father will come to thee soon! 6. "How shall I get better?" "Live on sixpence a day, and earn it," was the reply of the doctor. 7. Hear, gentle friends! Ere yet for me ye break the bonds of fealty. 8. If what I am told be true, we shall have war before long. 9. "Break off the sports!" he said, and frowned, "and bid our horsemen clear the ground!" 10. Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him. 11. O that those lips had language! 12. "Heave the lead!" cried the captain.

Exercise 131. Work this Exercise like the preceding. 1. The maid dusted the room with the greatest care. 2. The roses are blooming in the garden. 3. Look! in this place ran Cassius' dagger through. 4. See what a rent the envious Casca made! 5. If my brother had been here, he would not have spoken thus. 6. Do thou repeat to the first man thou mayest meet, that he and we and all men move under a canopy of love. 7. If we our Guide obey, the dreariest path will issue in heavenly day. 8. Lift! lift! ye mists, from off the silent coast. 9. If I were older, I should run faster. 10. We hope to see you soon again. 11. It is not easy to climb that hill. 12. Be so kind as to pass the salt!

Lesson 42.—The Inflexion of Verbs. IV.

- 1. We say: "A loving child," "a running stream," "a galloping horse."
- (i) The words loving, running, and galloping all go with nouns; and therefore they are adjectives.
- (ii) But, as they are also parts of the verbs love, run, and gallop, they are called participles.
- (iii) "He stood caressing his horse." Here caressing is an adjective, lecause it goes with the pronoun he.
- 2. A Participle is that part of the verb which does the duty of an adjective. Hence a Participle is a verbal adjective.

- (i) The Compound Perfect Participle Active is: "Having written," "Having struck," etc.
- (ii) The Compound Perfect Participle Passive is: "Having been written," "Having been struck," etc.
- 3. We say: "A walking-stick," "a frying-pan," "a fishing-rod." Now the words walking, frying, and fishing all end in ing; and all look exactly like loving, running, and galloping. But though they look alike, they do not do the same work; they do not fulfil the same function.
 - (i) "A walking-stick" is not "a stick that walks," but "a stick for walking."
 - (ii) "A frying-pan" is, in the same way "a pan for frying."
 - (iii) And so "a fishing-rod" is "a rod for fishing."
- 4. These words walking, frying, and fishing are not adjectives, but verbal nouns. If a verbal noun governs another noun, it is called a Gerund.
- 5. Gerunds are verbal nouns which govern other nouns. (They govern them, because they are not only nouns, but verbs also.)
- (i) "I am tired of dreaming dreams." Here dreaming is a verbal noun, which governs the other noun dreams.
- (ii) "This book is good enough for wasting time." Here wasting is a verbal noun, which governs the other noun time.
- (iii) "Mary dislikes reading history." Here reading is a verbal noun, which governs the other noun history.
- (iv) In such sentences as "He is fond of swimming," "He does not like reading," the words swimming and reading are simply verbal nouns, and not gerunds.
- (v) The word gerund comes from the Latin verb gero, I carry on. It is so called because it carries on—not only the meaning—but the power or function of the verb.

Exercise 132. Point out, in the following sentences, the Participles that are used as SIMPLE ADJECTIVES: 1. The glittering helmet scared the child. 2. Gone are all the barons bold. 3. Here it runs sparkling, there it lies darkling. 4. She is a most loving companion. 5 The grey-eyed morn smiles on the frowning night. 6. Ye mind me o' departed joys! 7. Mis-

taken as we were, we yet persevered. 8. Something attempted, something done, has earned a night's repose. 9. His withered cheek and tresses grey seemed to have known a better day. 10. Thou shalt not make unto thee any graven image! 11. She, dying, gave it me. 12. Broken in his power, he yet rejected all offers of peace.

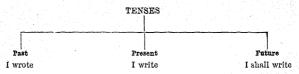
Exercise 133. Arrange in separate columns, under the headings participles, gerunds, and verbal nouns, the words in ing in the following phrases and sentences: 1. A running stream he dare not cross. 2. Mary is a most loving child. 3. I do not care much for fishing. 4. I hate walking when I can ride. 5. Always wash your hands before eating. 6. Susan is too fond of reading novels. 7. Mr. Gladstone is fond of felling trees. 8. Seeing is believing. 9. Travelling along the banks of the river, I saw a snake. 10. The prisoner escaped by crossing the river. 11. The boy was punished for robbing the orchard. 12. A trotting horse. 13. A frying-pan. 14. A creaking door. 15. The acting secretary. 16. Fond of running. 17. Fond of running races. 18. Nice in his eating.

Exercise 134. Work this Exercise like Exercise 133. 1. Stand not upon the order of your going, but go at once! 2. And more stately thy couch by this desert lake lying, with one faithful friend but to witness thy dying. 3. We watched her breathing through the night. 4. We thought her dying when she slept, and sleeping when she died. 5. Plain living and high thinking are no more. 6. Thou lingering star with lessening ray, again thou usher'st in the day! 7. Ayr gurgling kissed his pebbled shore. 8. I cried in my passionate longing. 9. Reading makes a full man; writing an exact man; and conversing a ready man. 10. The time of the singing of birds is come. 11. I carefully avoided seeing the gentleman. 12. I prefer taking a general view of the subject. 13. 'Tis the blest art of turning all to gold. 14. By dint of travelling hard, we reached home before nightfall. 15. Of making many books there is no end. 16. The loud waves lashed the shore, return or aid preventing. 17. And talking is not always to converse. 18. Who would have thought of seeing you here!

Exercise 135. Make six sentences: two containing a present participle; two a gerund; and two a verbal noun.

Lesson 43.—The Inflexion of Verbs.

- 1. We say: (i) I wrote yesterday. (ii) I write, or aming to-day. (iii) I shall write to-morrow. In the sishing-sentences there are three verbs with three times ag all end of yesterday, that is past; the time of to-day, the and gallopand the time of to-morrow, that is to come—or that he same
 - 2. The Time of a Verb is called, in Grammar, its Tense.
- 3. Every verb has three main tenses: the Past, the Present, and the Future.



There are also three main conditions in each tense: Complete or Perfect; Incomplete or Imperfect; and Indefinite.

- (i) "The letter is written." Here written shows that the work is complete.
- (ii) "He is writing the letter." Here writing shows the work is incomplete.
- (iii) "He writes now and then." Here the time of writes is indefinite.

Exercise 136. Arrange in three columns, under the headings PAST, PRESENT, and FUTURE, the verbs in the following sentences:

1. Mary died last week. 2. Their friends will come to-morrow.

3. The gardener planted several rows of peas. 4. The wind blows a regular hurricane. 5. My heart leaps up when I behold a rainbow in the sky. 6. Her sails from heaven received no motion. 7. I looked to heaven and tried to pray. 8. The waves flowed over the Inchcape Rock. 9. John comes here every Saturday. 10. Will he not come back again? 11. The green field sleeps in the sun. 12. We bathed in the open sea last summer.

Exercise 137. Give the PAST, PRESENT, and FUTURE of the following: Awake, beat, come, cut, do, hop, hunt, make, meddle.

Lesson 44.—The Inflexion of Verbs. VI.

1. We have therefore, in our language, nine tense-forms, put more simply, nine Tenses. These are:

Otter.	42	Cal	Present Imperfect						I am writing
· Bur (i)	sent		Present Perfect						I have written
encil!	Pre		Present Indefinite		·			. · · ·	I write
14	Abor .	(a)	Past Imperfect				٠. ١		I was writing
(H)	8.8	(b)	Past Perfect (or P	luper	fect)				I had written
e Corre	SMILESC:	(c)	Past Indefinite	٠.,	•	•			I wrote
		((a)	Future Imperfect						I shall be writing
(iii)	₿.	(b)	Future Perfect						I shall have written
	Z	(c)	Future Indefinite					•	I shall write

If the Teacher thinks it better and more conducive to clearness, he may use the terms

Complete and Incomplete instead of Perfect and Imperfect.

- (iv) (a) The verb "I have been writing" is called Present Perfect Continuous.
 - (b) "I had been writing" is Past Perfect Continuous.
 - (c) "I shall have been writing" is Future Perfect Continuous.
- (v) What is called the **Historic Present** is used in lively narrative to give an appearance of the action going on before our eyes; as, "He comes; he sees the enemy; he dashes at him; he puts him to rout."
 - 2. The above may be set forth in a TABLE, thus:

	TIME	CONDITION									
		INDEFINITE	INCOMPLETE	COMPLETE							
H	Present	I write	I am writing	I have written							
ACTIVE	Past	I wrote	I was writing	I had written							
٩Ų	Puture	I shall write	I shall be writing	I shall have written							
图(Present	It is written	It is being written	It has been written							
PASSIVE	Past	It was written	It was being written	It had been written							
PA	Future	It shall be written	(Wanting)	It shall have been written							

3. Verbs are also inflected for number. We say: "He writes" and "They write."

- (i) "Writes" is singular, because it is said of the singular pronoun he.
- (ii) "Write" is plural, because it is said of the plural pronoun they.
- (iii) In Old English (= Anglo-Saxon), the plural ending of verbs was ath-Writath.
- 4. Verbs are also inflected for person. We say: (i) "I write." (ii) "Thou writest." (iii) "He writes."
- (i) The form write is said to be in the first person, because it goes with the first personal pronoun.
 - (ii) The form writest is in the second person, because it goes with thou.
 - (iii) The form writes is in the third person, because it goes with he.

Exercise 138. Repeat (or write out) the nine tenses of Strike.

Exercise 139. Give the TENSES of the verbs in the following sentences, and also their conditions (Perfect, Imperfect, or Indefinite): 1. I shall be walking down Main Street at ten o'clock. 2. The baby was sleeping. 3. The sun, in Norway, rises in the north at midsummer. 4. We shall not be shooting to-morrow. 5. We lift our trusting eyes from the hills our fathers trod. 6. With thee, my bark, I'll swiftly go athwart the foaming brine. 7. They have been dancing for two hours. 8. One lovely hand she stretched for aid. 9. He will by now have been working for six hours. 10. They were drawing when I called on them. 11. The warm sun is failing, the bleak winds are wailing. 12. With dying hand, above his head he shook the fragment of his blade.

Exercise 140. Arrange in columns, under the headings IM-PERFECT, PERFECT, INDEFINITE, and CONTINUOUS, the verbs in the following sentences: 1. I am writing my cousin now. 2. They have been sending to the Hall every other day. 3. The Secretary has just written a letter to the Board. 4. I shall have finished my work before the bell rings. 5. They were weeding the garden when we called on them. 6. We visit the Hospital every Saturday. 7. I had written to Uncle before he called. 8. I shall be walking in Rotten Row at four to-morrow. 9. They will tell you when they want you.

Exercise 141. State (or write down) the number and person of each of the verbs in Exercise 155.

Lesson 45.—The Inflexion of Verbs. VII.

- 1. We say: (i) Write, wrote, written; and (ii) Love, loved, loved. The first is said to be a Strong Verb; the second is a Weak Verb.
 - (i) Write is also called a Verb of the Strong Conjugation.
 - (il) Love is a Verb of the Weak Conjugation.
- 2. The difference between Strong Verbs and Weak Verbs is known by their way of forming their past tenses.
- 3. A Strong Verb, to form its past tense, changes the vowel of the present tense, and never adds anything.

Abide, abode; begin, began; break, broke are all strong verbs.

- 4. A Weak Verb, to form its past tense, always adds an ed, a d, or a t; while it may or may not change the vowel of the present.
- (i) Sell, sold; Tell, told; buy, bought; say, said; seek, sought; teach, taught, are all weak verbs, because they add d or t to make their past tenses.
- (ii) Meet, met; feed, fed; lead, led; all look like strong verbs. But they are in reality weak; because their older forms were met-te, fed-de, led-de: the ending de has dropped off.
- 5. Weak Verbs are of two kinds: Regular Weak Verbs and Irregular Weak Verbs. The Regular Weak always add ed for their past tenses, and make no other change.

	REGULAR WE	AK.	11	RREGULAR WE	AK.
Attend	attended	attended	Bend	bent	bent
Correct	corrected	corrected	Catch	caught	caught
Deafen	deafened	deafened	Deal	dealt	dealt

- (i) The ed in the past tense is a worn-down form of did. Thus I loved=I lovedid.
- (ii) All new verbs follow the weak conjugation, and all that have come to us from foreign languages. We say: Telegraph; telegraphed; telegraphed.

EXERCISE 142. Arrange in columns, under the headings STRONG: REGULAR WEAK, and IRREGULAR WEAK, the following verbs: Love, write, abide, begin, break, attend, come, meet, deepen, bend, feed, seek, teach, observe, tell, sell, catch, say. Exercise 143. Give the exact definition of (i) a Strong Verb; (ii) a Regular Weak Verb; and (iii) an Irregular Weak Verb, under the headings of (a) Changing and (b) Adding.

The following is an

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF STRONG VERBS.

(All strong verbs except those which have a prefix are monosyllabic.)

The forms in italics are weak.

	PRES.		PASS. PART.		PRES.	PAST 1	PASS. PART.
	Abide	abode	abode	30	Find	found	found
	Arise	arose	arisen		Fling	flung	flung
	Awake	awoke	awoke		Fly	flew	flown
		(awaked)	(awaked)	100	Forbear	forbore	forborne
	Bear	bore	born		Forget	forgot	forgotten
	(bring f	orth)		35	Forsake	forsook	forsaken
5	Bear	bore	borne		Freeze	froze	frozen
	(carry)				Get	got	got, gotten
	Beat	beat	beaten	194	Give	gave	given
	Begin	began	begun		Go	went	gone
	Behold	beheld	beheld	40	Grind	ground	ground
	Bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid		Grow	grew	grown
10	Bind	bound	bound		Hang	hung (or	hung (or *
	Bite	bit	bitten, bit		. 7	hanged)	hanged)
	Blow	blew	blown		Hold	held	held
	Break	broke	broken		Know	knew	known
	Burst	burst	burst	45	Lie	lav	lain
15	Chide	chid	chidden,		Ride	rode	ridden
			chid		Ring	rang	rung
	Choose	chose	chosen		Rise	rose	risen (not
	Cleave	clove	cloven				passive)
	(split)				Run	ran	run
	Climb	clomb	(climbed)	50	See	saw	seen
	Cling	clung	clung		Seethe	sod (seethed)	
20	Come	came	come		Shake	shook	shaken
	Crow	crew	crown		Shine	shone	shone
			(crowed)		Shoot	shot	shot
	Dig	dug	dug	55	Shrink	shrank	shrunk
	Do	did	done		Sing	sang	sung
	Draw	drew	drawn		Sink	sank	sunk (or
25	Drink	drank	drunk				sunken)
	Drive	drove	driven		Sit	sat	sat
	Eat	ate	eaten		Slay	slew	slain
	Fall	fell	fallen	60	Slide	slid	slid
	Fight	fought	fought		Sling	slung	slung
					i e <mark>v</mark> ere e		

	PRES.	PAST I	PASS. PART.		PRES.	PAST	PASS. PART.
	Slink	slunk	slunk		Swing	swung	swung
	Smite	smote	smitten	80	Take	took	taken
	Speak	spoke	spoken		Tear	tore	torn
65	Spin	spun	spun		Thrive	throve	thriven
	Spring	sprang	sprung			(thrived)	(thrived)
	Stand	stood	stood		Throw	threw	thrown
	Stave	stove	stoved		Tread	trod	trodden,
	Steal	stole	stolen				trod
70	Stick	stuck	stuck	85	Wake	woke	(waked)
	Sting	stung	stung			(waked)	
	Stink	stank	stunk		Wear	wore	worn
	Stride	strode	stridden		Weave	wove	woven
	Strike	struck	struck		Win	won	won
75	String	strung	strung		Wind	wound	wound
	Strive	strove	striven	90	Wring	wrung	wrung
	Swear	swore	sworn		Write	wrote	written
	Swim	swam	swum				

Exercise 144. Conjugate (=give the principal parts of) the following verbs: Arise, bid, blow, burst, choose, cling, dig, do, drink, eat, fling, fly.

Exercise 145. Conjugate the following verbs: Forbear, get, grow, hang, lie (down), ride, ring, run, seethe, shine, shoot, shrink.

Exercise 146. Conjugate the following verbs: Sing, sink, sit, sting, spring, stick, stride, strive, swim, tear, swing, take.

Exercise 147. Conjugate the following verbs: Thrive, throw, tread, stray, wear, write, wring, weave, win, wake, wind, sting. The following is an

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF IRREGULAR WEAK VERBS. CLASS I.

	PRES.	PAST	PAST PART.	1	PRES.	PAST	PAST PART.
	Bereave	bereft	bereft		Dwell	dwelt	dwelt
	Beseech	besought	besought	4.5	Feel	felt	felt
	Bring	brought	brought		Flee	fled	fled
	Burn	burnt	burnt		Grave	graved	graven
5	Buy	bought	bought	15	Have	had	had
	Catch	caught	caught		Hew	hewed	hewn
	Cleave	cleft	cleft		Hide	hid	hidden
	(split)				Keep	kept	kept
	Creep	crept	crept	1	Kneel	knelt	knelt
	Deal	dealt	dealt	20	Lay	laid	laid
10	Dream	dreamt	dreamt	1 :	Lean	leant	leant

	PRES.	PAST	PAST PART.		PRES.	PAST	PAST PART.
	Learn	learnt	learnt		Shear	sheared	shorn
	Leap	leapt	leapt		Shoe	shod	shod
	Leave	left	left	40	Show	showed	shown
25	Lose	lost	lost		Sleep	slept	slept
	Make	made	made		Sow	sowed	sown
	Mean	meant	meant		Spell	spelt	spelt
	Pay	paid	paid		Spill	spilt	spilt
	Pen	pent	pent	45	Strew	strewed	strewn
		(penned)			Sweep	swept	swept
30	Rap	rapt	rapt		Swell	swelled	swollen
	(to trans	port)			Teach	taught	taught
	Rive	rived	riven		Tell	told	told
	Rot	rotted	rotten *	50	Think	thought	thought
	Say	said	said		Tie	tied	tight *
	Saw	sawed	sawn		Weep	wept	wept
35	Seek	sought	sought		Work	wrought	wrought*
	Sell	sold	sold			(worked)	(worked)
	Shave	shaved	shaven	15.5			

Rotten, tight, and wrought are now used as aljectives, and not as past participles; cp. wrought iron, a tight knot, rotten wood.

CLASS II.

							16
	PRES.	PAST I	PAST PART.	1	PRES.	PAST	PAST PART.
	Bend	bent	bent		Meet	met	met
	Bleed	bled	bled		Put	put	put
	Blend	blent	blent		Read	read	read
	Breed	bred	bred		Rend	rent	rent
	Build	built	built	25	Rid	rid	rid
	Cast	cast	cast		Send	sent	sent
	Clothe	clad	clad		Set	set	set
		(clothed)	(clothed)		Shed	shed	shed
	Cost	cost	cost		Shred	shred	shred
	Cut	eut	cut	30	Shut	shut	shut
1	Feed	fed	fed	1	Slit	slit	slit
	Gild	gilt	gilt (gilded)		Speed	sped	sped
	Gird	girt	girt		Spend	spent	spent
	Hear	heard	heard		Spit	spit	spit
	Hit	hit	hit	35	Split	split	split
1	5 Hurt	hurt	hurt		Spread	spread	spread
	Knit	knit	knit		Sweat	sweat	sweat
	Lead	led	led		Thrust	thrust	thrust
	Lend	lent	lent		Wend	wended	wended
	Let	let	let			(or went)	
2	0 Light	lit (lighted)	lit (lighted)		Wet	wet	wet

Exercise 148. Conjugate (= give the chief parts of) the following verbs: Beseech, cleave, creep, dream, flee, grave, hew, lay, hide, lose, pen, rive.

Exercise 149. Conjugate: Say, saw, shave, shear, shoe, sow, spill, strew, swell, teach, weep, work.

Exercise 150. Conjugate: Bend, cast, clothe, cost, cut, hit, lend, meet, put, read, rid, set.

Exercise 151. Conjugate: Sell, shed, shut, sleep, split, spread, sweep, thrust, think, tie, wend, wet.

Lesson 46.—The Auxiliary Verbs Have and Be.

1. Have and Be are the two most useful verbs in the language; and they do most work. Hence it is necessary to learn how to conjugate them before attempting to conjugate other verbs.

2. Conjugation of the Verb **HAVE**.

INDICATIVE MOOD. Present Indefinite Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. I have 2. Thou ha-st

3. He ha-s

The state of the s

PLURAL.

1. We have 2. You have

3. They have

Present Perfect Tense.

1. I have had

2. Thou hast had

3. He has had

1. We have had

2. You have had

3. They have had

- (i) Hast = havest. Compare e'en and even.
- (ii) Had=haved.

Past Indefinite Tense.

1. I had 2. Thou had st

3. He had

1. We had

2. You had

3. They had

Past Perfect (or Pluperfect) Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. I had had

2. Thou hadst had

3. He had had

PLURAL.

1. We had had

2 You had had

3. They had had

Future Indefinite Tense.

1. I shall have

2. Thou wilt have

3. He will have

1. We shall have

2. You will have

3. They will have

Future Perfect Tense.

1. I shall have had

2. Thou wilt have had 3. He will have had

1. We shall have had

2. You will have had

3. They will have had

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Indefinite Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. (If) I have 2. (If) thou have

3. (If) he have

PLUBAT.

1. (If) we have

2. (If) you have 3. (If) they have

Present Perfect Tense.

1. (Though) I have had

2. (Though) thou have had 3. (Though) he have had

1. (Though) we have had

2. (Though) you have had 3. (Though) they have had

Past Indefinite Tense.

1. (If) I had

2. (If) thou had 3. (If) he had

1. (If) we had 2. (If) you had

3. (If) they had

Past Perfect (or Pluperfect) Tense.

1. (Though) I had had

2 (Though) thou had had 3. (Though) he had had

1. (Though) we had had

2. (Though) you had had

3. (Though) they had had

IMPERATIVE MOOD. - Singular: Have! Plural: Have!

INFINITIVE MOOD. -- Present Indefinite: (To) have. Perfect: (To) have had.

PARTICIPLES. -- Present Imperfect: Having. Past (or Passive): Had.

Compound Perfect (Active) : Having had.

3. The following are the parts of the verb BE:

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Indefinite Tense.

SINGULAR.

1. I a-m

Elland Charles

2. Thou ar-t 3. He is PLURAL.

1. We are

You are
 They are

Present Perfect Tense.

1. I have been

2. Thou hast been

3. He has been

1. We have been

2. You have been

3. They have been

Past Indefinite Tense.

1. I was

2. Thou wast or wert

3. He was

1. We were

2. You were

3. They were

Past Perfect (Pluperfect) Tense.

1. I had been

2. Thou hadst been

3. He had been

1. We had been

2. You had been

3. They had been

Future Indefinite Tens

I shall be, etc.

Future Perfect Tense.

I shall have been, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Indefinite Tense.

SINGULAR.

(If) I be
 (If) thou be

3. (If) he be

PLURAL.

1. (If) we be

2. (If) you be

3. (If) they be

Present Perfect Tense.

1. (Though) I have been
2. (Though) thou have been

2. (Though) thou have been

3. (Though) he have been

1. (Though) we have been

2. (Though) you have been3. (Though) they have been

Past Indefinite Tense.

1. (If) I were

2. (If) thou wert

3. (If) he were

1. (If) we were

2. (If) you were

3. (If) they were

Past Perfect (Pluperfect) Tense.

SINGULAR. PLURAL. 1. (Though) we had been 1. (Though) I had been 2. (Though) thou had been 2. (Though) you had been 3. (Though) they had been 3. (Though) he had been Future Indefinite (Compound Form). 1. (If) I should be 1 (If) we should be 2 (If) thou should be 2. (If) you should be 3. (If) he should be 3 (If) they should be

Future Perfect (Compound Form).

1. (Though) I should have been 1. (Though) we should have been 2. (Though) thou should have been. 2. (Though) you should have been 3. (Though) he should have been 3. (Though) they should have been

IMPERATIVE MOOD - Singular: Be! Plural: Be!

INFINITIVE MOOD .- Present Indefinite: (To) be. Present Perfect: (To) have been. PARTICIPLES .- Present : Being. Past : Been. Compound Perfect : Having been.

(i) It is plain from the above that the verb Be is made up of fragments of three different verbs. As when, in a battle, several companies of a regiment have been severely cut up, and the fragments of those that came out safely are afterwards formed into one company, so has it been with the verb Be. Hence the verb ought to be printed thus :-

> Am was been.

(ii) Am is a different verb from was and been. The m in am is the same as the m in me, and marks the first person. The t in art is the same as the th in thou, and marks the second person. Compare wil-t and shal-t.

(iii) (a) Be is a principal verb when it means to exist, as "God is." (b) It is also a principal verb when it is used as a joiner or copula, as in the sentence, "John is a teacher," where the is enables us to connect John and teacher in the mind.

CONJUGATION OF THE ACTIVE VERB STRIKE.

PRESENT. Strike

PAST. Struck PAST OR PASSIVE PARTICIPLE.

Struck

PLURAL.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

I. PRESENT TENSES.

Present Indefinite.

SINGULAR.

1. I strike

1. We strike

2. Thou strikest

2. Ye (or you) strike

3. He (or she) strikes

3. They strike

An old-fashioned third person singular ended in eth, "He striketh," This is still to be found in the English Version of the Bible of 1611.

Present Imperfect.

SINGULAR.

1. I am striking

2. Thou art striking

3. He is striking

PLURAL.

1. We are striking

2. You are striking

3. They are striking

Present Perfect.

1. I have struck

2. Thou hast struck

3. He has struck

1 We have struck

2. You have struck

3. They have struck

Present Perfect Continuous

1. I have been striking

2. Thou hast been striking

3. He has been striking

1. We have been striking

2. You have been striking

3. They have been striking

II. PAST TENSES.

Past Indefinite.

SINGULAR.

1. I struck

2. Thou struckest 3. He struck

PLUBAL.

1. We struck

2. You struck 3. They struck

Past Imperfect.

1. I was striking

2. Thou wast striking

3. He was striking

- 1. We were striking
- 2. You were striking 3. They were striking

Past Perfect (or Pluperfect).

1 I had struck

2. Thou hadst struck

3. He had struck

- 1. We had struck
- 2. You had struck 3. They had struck

Past Perfect Continuous.

1. I had been striking

2. Thou hadst been striking

3. He had been striking

1. We had been striking

2. You had been striking 3. They had been striking

PLURAL.

III. FUTURE TENSES.

Future Indefinite.

SINGULAR.

1. I shall strike 2. Thou wilt strike

3. He will strike

1. We shall strike

2. You will strike

3. They will strike

Future Imperfect.

1. I shall be striking

2. Thou wilt be striking

3. He will be striking

1. We shall be striking

2. You will be striking

3. They will be striking

Future Perfect.

SINGULAR.

1. I shall have struck

- 2. Thou wilt have struck
- 3. He will have struck

PLURAL.

- 1. We shall have struck
- 2. You will have struck
- 3. They will have struck

Future Perfect Continuous.

- 1. I shall have been striking
- 2. Thou wilt have been striking
- 3. He will have been striking
- 1. We shall have been striking
- 2. You will have been striking
- 3. They will have been striking

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

- 2. Strike !
- 3. Let him strike!

- PLURAL.
- 2. Strike!
- 3. Let them strike!

Future Tense

- 2. Thou shalt strike!
- .
- 2. You shall strike!

3. He shall strike!

3. They shall strike!

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

I. PRESENT TENSES.

SINGULAR.

- 511.00-411
- (If) I strike
 (If) thou strike
- 3. (If) he strike

PLURAL.

- 1. (If) we strike
- 2. (If) you strike
- 3. (If) they strike

Present Imperfect.

- 1. (Though) I be striking
- 2. (Though) thou be striking
- 3. (Though) he be striking
- 1. (Though) we be striking
- 2. (Though) you be striking
- 3. (Though) they be striking

Present Perfect.

- 1. (If) I have struck
- 2. (If) thou hast struck
- 3. (If) he has struck

- 1. (If) we have struck
- 2. (If) you have struck
- 3. (If) they have struck

Present Perfect Continuous.

- 1. (Though) I have been striking
- 2. (Though) thou hast been striking
- 3. (Though) he has been striking
- 1. (Though) we have been striking
- 2. (Though) you have been striking
- 3. (Though) they have been striking

ETYMOLOGY

II PAST TENSES.

Past Indefinite.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

1. (If) I struck 2. (If) thou struck 1. (If) we struck 2. (If) you struck

3. (If) he struck

3. (If) they struck

Past Imperfect.

- 1. (Though) I were striking
- 1. (Though) we were striking
- 2. (Though) thou were striking 3. (Though) he were striking
- 2. (Though) you were striking 3. (Though) they were striking

Past Perfect (or Pluperfect).

1. (If) I had struck 2. (If) thou had struck 1. (If) we had struck 2. (If) you had struck

3. (If) he had struck

3. (If) they had struck

Past Perfect Continuous.

- 1. (Though) I had been striking
- 1. (Though) we had been striking
- 2. (Though) thou had been striking
- 2. (Though) you had been striking
- 3. (Though) he had been striking
- 3. (Though) they had been striking

III FUTURE TENSES

Future Indefinite.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

- 1. (If) I should strike 2. (If) thou should strike
- 1. (If) we should strike 2. (If) you should strike

3. (If) he should strike

3. (If) they should strike

Future Imperfect.

- 1. (If) I should be striking
- 1. (If) we should be striking
- 2. (If) thou should be striking 3. (If) he should be striking
- 2. (If) you should be striking 3. (If) they should be striking

Future Perfect.

- 1. (Though) I should have struck
- 1. (Though) we should have struck
- 2. (Though) thou should have struck
- 2. (Though) you should have struck
- 3. (Though) he should have struck
- 3. (Though) they should have struck

Future Perfect Continuous.

- 1. (If) I should have been striking
- 1. (If) we should have been striking
- 2. (If) thou should have been striking
- 2. (If) you should have been striking
- 3. (If) he should have been striking
- 3 (If) they should have been striking

INFINITIVE MOOD.

1. Present Indefinite		. (To) s	trike
2. Present Imperfect		(To) 1	e striking
3. Present Perfect .		. (To) h	ave struck
4. Present Perfect Con	tinuous	. (To) 1	ave been striking

PARTICIPLES.

1.	Present Imperfect .		٠.		Striking
2.	Present Perfect				Having struck
3.	Present Perfect Continue	ous .		•	Having been striking

GERUND.

Present, . . Striking. Perfect, . . Having struck.

(a) "I don't like striking him;" (b) "I don't like having struck him."

Exercise 152. Give the TENSE and MOOD of the following verbs:

1. We strike. 2. We have been dining. 3. You had finished.
4. You will have been walking four hours. 5. We were talking together. 6. If he told you so, it must be true. 7. He shall go! 8. They had already stopped work. 9. He has been working at it for the last six hours. 10. They wrote yesterday.

11. We shall be standing at the gate. 12. He will go as soon as possible.

Exercise 153. Give the TENSE and Mood of the following verbs:

1. Strike, but hear! 2. Though we have been waiting for two hours, we see no sign of his coming. 3. If he wrote you, where is the letter? 4. Though we had been walking for eight hours, we were not in the least tired. 5. If I should write him to that effect, he would come. 6. When writing at the window, I heard a noise in the street. 7. If you were waiting at the door, how is it you missed them? 8. They shall come! 9. You are asking for what you will not get. 10. You have asked for too much.

11. They had made many inquiries before they found the right street. 12. You will wait here, please, till I return.

Exercise 154. Give the TENSE and MOOD of the verbs in the following sentences: 1. I found the bird lying dead at the foot of the tree. 2. O what a happy life were mine, if I were only back in England once more! 3. If I lift the hammer in this way, shall I strike the nail fairly? 4. Rest, rest, on mother's breast; father will come to thee soon. 5 The ship will now have been driving before the gale for two days. 6. It is not an

easy thing to play on the violin. 7. It is sweet to be awakened by the lark. 8. Recollecting his mistake, he ran back to the house. 9. They made a molten image, and set it up on high, and there it stands unto this day to witness if I lie. 10. It would be impossible for water to perform these offices, were there no hills for it to run from, no valleys to run through. 11. Clerk, draw a deed of gift! 12. I pray you, give me leave to go from hence.

CONJUGATION OF THE PASSIVE VERB TO BE STRUCK.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

I. PRESENT TENSES.

1. Present Indefinite	٠.		•	I am struck
2. Present Imperfect		٠.		I am being struck
3. Present Perfect .				I have been struck

II. PAST TENSES.

1. Past Indefinite	٠.			I was struck
2. Past Imperfect				I was being struck
3. Past Perfect				I had been struck

III. FUTURE TENSES.

1.	Future Indefinite	•	•	 I shall be	struck
2.	Future Imperfect		 		

3 Future Perfect I shall have been struck

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

I. PRESENT TENSE.

singular.
2. Be (healed)!

PLURAL.

2. Be (healed) !

II. FUTURE TENSE.

2. Thou shalt be struck!
3. He shall be struck!
3. They shall be struck!

BE STRUCK! would be good in grammar; but bad in sense. Hence BE SEALED! has been substituted. Coleridge, in one of his short poems, has "Be! rather than be called a child of God!"

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

I. PRESENT TENSES.

1.	Present Indefinite	1. 1. 1.	. (If) I be struck	
2.	Present Imperfect			
3.	Present Perfect .		. (If) I have been	struck

II. PAST TENSES.

1.	Past Indefinite			(If) I were struck
2.	Past Imperfect	4, 1		(If) I were being struck
9	Doet Donfoot			(If) I had been struck

III. FUTURE TENSES.

1. Future Indefinite				• • •	(If) I should	be struck
----------------------	--	--	--	-------	---------------	-----------

2. Future Imperfect . .

3. Future Perfect . . . (If) I should have been struck

INFINITIVE MOOD.

 Present Indefinite 		(To) be struck	
		.m. t. t.	

2. Present Perfect . . . (To) have been struck

PARTICIPLES.

1. Indefinite		 Struck
2. Present		Being struck
3. Past .		 Having been struck

(i) The passive participle combines with both am and have. We say: I am struck; and I have struck the target. The last is=I possess the target struck; so that the participle struck is passive so far as the target is concerned, though we say that I have struck is the perfect tense of the active verb To strike.

Exercise 155. Give the TENSE and Mood of the verbs in the following sentences: 1. We were much struck with his appearance. 2. They had been greatly upset by the news. 3. If we had been told sooner, we should not have gone. 4. If I had been earlier informed, I should have written him. 5. You shall be arrested! 6. We shall be much surprised if he comes. 7. To have been apprised of the event in time was much in itself. 8. Having been struck by the paragraph in the newspapers, I wrote to the Secretary. 9. I was being dragged off by two soldiers, when the colonel appeared. 10. If he had been met sooner, it would have been better. 11. They have been misinformed. 12. Being spoken to on the subject I naturally replied.

Exercise 156. Give the TENSE and MOOD of the verbs in the following sentences: 1. It is unpleasant to be cheated. 2. She was thoroughly exhausted with skating. 3. The chains were easily broken. 4. Leave my loneliness unbroken! 5. His shadow is thrown upon the floor by the lamplight streaming

over him. 6. She was called Lenore. 7. When brothers quarrel, they are easily injured. 8. Tell me that our love is remembered, even in the sky. 9. We saw the forehead of the mountain lit by the rising sun. 10. Sceptre and crown are made equal in the dust with the scythe and the spade. 11. If it were done, when it is done, it were well it were done quickly. 12. The tax was expected to raise two millions a year.

Lesson 47. Auxiliary Verbs. 1.

1. Those verbs which help other verbs to conjugate themselves are called Auxiliary Verbs. They aid in the formation of Voice, Mood, and Tense.

The word auxiliary comes from the Latin auxilium, aid.

- 2. The most important Auxiliary Verbs are: Have, be; shall, will; and do.
 - 3. Have is the auxiliary for the Perfect Tenses.
 - (i) Present Perfect . . . I have struck
 - (ii) Past Perfect . . . I had struck
 - (iii) Future Perfect . . . I shall have struck
 - 4. Be is the auxiliary for the Passive Voice.
 - (i) Present Imperfect . . . I am being struck
 (ii) Present Perfect . . . I have been struck
 - (iii) Past Perfect . . . I had been struck
 - 5. Shall and will are the auxiliaries of the Future Tense.

Lesson 48.—Auxiliary Verbs. 11.

- I. Shall and will are the auxiliaries of the Future Tense.
- 2. The following is the Conjugation of the verb SHALL.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

I. Present Tense.

1. Shall.
2. Shalt.
3. Shall.
1. Shall.
2. Shall.
3. Shall.
1. Shall.
2. Shall.
3. Shall.
1. Should.
2. Shouldest or shouldst.
3. Should.
1. Should.
2. Should.
3. Should.

- (i) The old meaning of shall is to owe. Hence "Thou shalt not steal"="Thou oughtest not to steal." This sense of duty reappears in the past tense "He should go, if he is a wise man."
 - (ii) Shall is an auxiliary of time in the first person only.
 - 3. The following is the Conjugation of the verb WILL.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

				SINC	PLURA					L.				
	İ.	Present Tense.	1	Will.	2	wilt.	3	will.	1	1	Will.	2. will.	3. will	l
3	II.	Past Tense.	1.	Would.	2	wouldst.	3.	would.	. 1	1.	Would.	2. would	. 3. wor	ıld.

- (1) An old form of will was wol. This was combined with not into wol not, which became woln't, and lastly won't.
- (ii) No is the old negative for not. No will was contracted into nill. Then "nill he, will he" (= whether he will or no) was contracted into "nilly willy."

Lesson 49.—Auxiliary Verbs. III.

1. May, can, and must, are also auxiliaries of a mood called the Mood of Power or the Potential Mood. We say:
(i) "He may go." (ii) "He can go." (iii) "He must go."

But the right way of looking at "He may go" is to regard go as the infinitive mood, governed by the verb may. "He may to go"="He is at liberty to go."

- 2. Do is used as the auxiliary of the Mood of Emphasis: as, (i) "I do love you." (ii) "I do detest the thing."
 - 3. The following is the Conjugation of the verb MAY.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SII	NGULAR.		PLURAL,
I. Present Tense. 1. May.	2. mayest or mayst.	1. May.	2 may. 3. may.
	3. may		
II. Past Tense. 1. Might.	2. mightest or mightst.	1. Might.	2. might. 3. might.
	3. might.		

The y in may represents an old g, which reappears in the past tense might.

4. The following is the Conjugation of the verb CAN.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

	SINGULAR.		PLURA L.
		3 can. 1. Can.	
II. Past Tense. 1	L Could. 2. couldst.	3. could. 1. Could.	2. could. 3. could.

The old way of spelling could was coud. The 1 has no business in the word at all. There is no 1 in can. People saw would and should each with an 1; and they reasoned—wrongly—that there ought to be an 1 in could.

Lesson 50.—Auxiliary Verbs. IV.

- 1. The auxiliary verb Must is not inflected at all.
- 2. The following is the Conjugation of the verb DO:

INDICATIVE MOOD.

		SINGULAR.			PLURAL.								
I. Present Tense	1.	Do.	2.	dost.	3.	does or doth.	1.	Do.	2.	do.	3.	do.	
II. Past Tense.	1.	Did.	2.	didst.	3.	did.	1.	Did.	2.	did.	3.	did.	

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

			SINGULAR.				PLURAL.		
I.	Present Tense.	1. Do.	2. do.	3. do.	1.	Do.	2. do.	3.	do.
II.	Past Tense.	1. Did.	2. did.	3. did.	1.	Did.	2. did.	3.	did.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
2. Do!	2. Do!
3. Let him do (it)!	3. Let them do (it)

- (i) The verb do is also used (i) as an auxiliary of interrogation: "Do you come with us?" (ii) of negation; as, "I do not know."
- (ii) In the sentence "How do you do?" the first do is quite different from the second, though spelt in the same way. The first do is from the Old English verb doan, to do; the second from dugan, to thrive.

The dug in dugan is also found in doughty=strong.

(ii) The second do (from dugan) is also found in such phrases as "This will never do!" "Will this plan do?" "I can do (=get on, or thrive) without it."

Lesson 51.—Defective and Impersonal Verbs.

- 1. There are in our language a number of verbs which do not possess all their parts—which are wanting in several. These are called **Defective Verbs**.
 - 2. The most important Defective Verbs are: Dare and Owe.
 - 3. The following are the chief parts of the verb DARE:

INDICATIVE MOOD.

I. Present Tense. 1 Dare. 2 darest. 3 dares or dare. 1. Dare. 2 dare. 3 dare. 1. Dare. 2 dare. 1. Durst (in all persons and both numbers).

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

- I. Present Tense. Dare (in all persons and both numbers).
- 11. Past Tense. Durst (in all persons and both numbers).
 Dure in the sense of "to challenge" takes an ordinary past, dared.
 - 4. The following are the chief parts of the verb OWE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.

PLURAT.

- I. Present Tense. 1. Owe. 2. owest. 3. owes. 1. Owe. 2. owe. 3. owe
- II. Past Tense. 1. Ought. 2. oughtest. 3. ought. 1. ought. 2. ought. 3. ought.
 - (i) When owe means to owe money, its past is regular owed.
 - (ii) The past ought is now used as a present, in the sense of duty.
- 5. Impersonal Verbs are those which have no real "person" to go with them, but only it for their subject; as, "It rains," "It freezes," etc.
 - (i) In these sentences the pronoun it stands for "something unknown,"
- (ii) In some impersonal verbs, even the it is understood, as in methinks, meseems, etc.

In Old English there were two verbs thincan, to seem, and thencan, to think. It is the first which appears in methinks and methought.

- (iii) The verb to be may be used as an impersonal verb, as in such phrases as: "It is cold," "It is growing dark," It is very late."
- (iv) The pronoun it is also used in this "impersonal" fashion as an objective: as in "Come and trip it as ye go, on the light fantastic toe!" And Shakespeare has to king it (=to act the king), to queen it, to lord it, etc. etc.

Lesson 52.—Adverbs.

- 1 (a) An Adverb is a word which modifies the meaning of Verbs, Adjectives, or other Adverbs. Or
 - (b) An Adverb is a Modifying Word.
- 2. Adverbs are of two kinds: (i) Simple Adverbs; and (ii) Conjunctive Adverbs.
- (i) A Simple Adverb is a word like very, extremely, too, in the sentences: "He is very ili," "She is extremely naughty." "He is too absurd."
- (ii) A Conjunctive Adverb is an adverb which does not only its own work, but also that of a conjunction. That is, it not only modifies, but connects "I will come when I am ready." Here the adverb when modifies the verb come; but it also connects the two sentences "I will come" and "I am ready."
- 3. Adverbs, as we have seen, are of many kinds. The most important are Adverbs (i) of Time; (ii) of Place; (iii) of Manner; and (iv) of Degree.
 - (i) Of Time: Now, then ; to-day, to-morrow; when.
 - (ii) Of Place: Here, then; hither, thither; hence.
 - (iii) Of Manner: Well, ill; slowly, quickly; better, worse.
 - (iv) Of Degree: Very, much; almost, quite; too, entirely.
- 4. We have a complete set of adverbs relating to place; but some of them are falling into disuse:

	This place.	That place.	The place which.
In	Here	There	Where
To	Hither	Thither	Whither
From	Hence	Thence	Whence

⁽i) Here is an old dative case.

⁽ii) Hence (formerly henn-es) is an old possessive.

Lesson 53.—The Inflexion of Adverbs. 1.

- 1. Adverbs, like adjectives, are inflected for comparison.
- 2. Adverbs, like adjectives, have three degrees of comparison: as soon, sooner, soonest; hard, harder, hardest.



- (ii) The modern way of making an adverb is by adding ly (a broken-down form of like) to an adjective; as, wise, wisely.
- (iii) In Old English, the dative of an adjective was used as an adverb; as, brighte (=brightly). faste (=fast). Then the ending e fell away; and hence there are in our language a number of words that are both adjectives and adverbs: as loud, fast, quick, near, early, straight, etc. (We can say: "He runs fast"—when fast is an adverb modifying runs; and "He came by a fast train'—when fast is an adjective marking the noun train.)
- 3. It is only Adverbs of Manner, Degree and Time, that admit of comparison; as, well, little, soon.

An adverb of fixed time, like now, then; or an adverb of place, like here, there, cannot be compared.

Exercise 157. Some of the words in the following sentences are used as ADVERBS and also as ADJECTIVES; place them in separate columns: 1. John is pretty well, thank you. 2. What a pretty view there is from your bedroom window! 3. Harry shouted loud and long; but no one came. 4. He read out the names in the long list in a loud voice. 5. The hill of knowledge is in some places hard to climb. 6. The blacksmith works hard all day. 7. She little thinks that her boy is ill. 8. I hope the little boy will recover. 9. He aimed high and missed. 10. The house is the only high one in the street. 11. The child must learn to walk straight.

Exercise 158. Work this like Exercise 157: 1. John writes worse than ever. 2. The patient is much worse. 3. The

doctor gave him too much medicine. 4. Is this a quick train?
5. Run quicker, or you will not catch it! 6. The boy paid dear for his whistle. 7. Provisions of all sorts are dearer this winter.
8. You must not write so close! 9. The room was very close.
10. He ran past as quick as he could. 11. The verb is in the past tense. 12. The ploughman ploughed deep in the stiff soil.

Exercise 159. Make six sentences in which the following words shall be used alternately as ADVERBS and as ADJECTIVES: Better, hard, ill, little.

Exercise 160. Work this Exercise like the preceding: Quick, half, more, cheap.

Lesson 54.—The Inflexion of Adverbs. 11.

- 1. Adverbs, as we have seen, have degrees of comparison.
- (i) "John works hard." Here hard is in the positive degree.
- (ii) "Tom works harder." Here harder is in the comparative degree.
- (iii) "Philip works hardest of all." Here hardest is in the superlative.
- 2. Adverbs of one syllable take er and est; adverbs of two or more syllables employ the adverbs more and most.
 - (i) Fast, faster, fastest. Far, farther, farthest.
 - (ii) Wisely, more wisely, etc. Cleverly, more cleverly, etc.
 - 3. The following Adverbs are irregularly compared.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Ill (or badly)	Worse	Worst
Well	Better	Best
Much	More	Most
Little	Less	Least
Nigh (or near)	Nearer	Next
Forth	Further	Furthest
Far	Farther	Farthest
Late	Later	Last
(Rathe)	Rather	

⁽i) III is an adjective in "He is ill'; an adverb in "He writes ill." In the first sentence, III goes with he; in the second, it modifies writes,

- (ii) Much is an adjective in "Much corn"; an adverb in "Much better."
- (iii) Little is an adjective in "A little boy"; an adverb in "He is very little better.
- (iv) Nigh is an adverb in "Draw nigh!" next in the phrase "Next best."
- (v) Far is an adjective in "A far land"; an adverb in "He walked far."
- (vi) Rathe is an old word meaning early. In an Old English book the sentence occurs: "The star rose rather and rather." In Sussex there is an early apple called the "rathe ripe." Rather is still sounded with a long ā in Ireland.

Exercise 161. Arrange in separate columns under the headings of time, of place, of manner, and of degree, the following adverbs: Very, now, too, soon, quick, thither, entirely, ill, worse, there, much, quite, nearly, enough, terribly, to-day, steadfastly, just, upward, only.

Exercise 162. Work this Exercise like the preceding: Slowly, loud, here, hence, bitterly, again, downward, always, often, lightly, tenderly, carefully, slenderly, so, never, yet, unjustly, far, everywhere, further.

Exercise 163. Compare the following adverbs: Far, forth, ill, late, little, much.

Exercise 164. Make six sentences, each to contain one of the adverbs in Exercise 163.

Lesson 55.—Prepositions.

- 1. A Preposition is a noun-connecting word.
- 2. It connects nouns with verbs, or with adjectives, or with other nouns.
 - (i) "The book lies on the table." Here on connects the verb lies and table.
 - (ii) "He is fond of football." Here of connects the adjective fond and football.
 - (iii) "The man at the door is waiting." Here at connects man and door.
- 3. Prepositions are of two kinds: (i) Simple; and (ii) Compound.
 - (i) Simple Prepositions are: At, by, for, in, of, on, to, with, etc.
 - (ii) Compound Prepositions are made up of two words: Throughout (=through+out), into (=in+to), upon (=up+on), within (=with+in).

(iii) There is also a kind of Compound Preposition, which is made up of two or three words that are not joined; as, According to; along with; because of; on account of, etc.

4. A Preposition is sometimes used as an Adverb.

PREPOSITIONS.

- 1. The boy ran up the hill.
- 2. The book lies on the table.
- 3. Jump off the chair !
- 4. He walked past the church.

ADVERBS.

- la. Stand up!
- 2a. Come on, my boys!
- 3a. Be off, you lazy fellows !
- 4a. He walked quickly past.
- (i) In the first sentence, up is a preposition, because it joins ran and hill. In 1a, it is an adverb, because it modifies stand.
- (ii) In the last sentence, past is a preposition, because it joins walked and church. In 4a, it is an adverb, because it modifies walked.

Exercise 165. In the following Exercise, some words are used as prepositions and also as adverses; place them in separate columns: 1. He roamed up and down in the forest. 2. They walked together up the hill. 3. I saw the boys running down the road. 4. The lecturer said a good deal about lobsters. 5. The ship was at once put about. 6. The hound ran after the hare. 7. We went on; and they came after. 8. The ship went on right before the wind. 9. I am sure I told you this before. 10. They stepped inside the coach. 11. The omnibus was full inside. 12. The house near the church is empty. 13. Evil spirits, come not near!

exercise 166. Work this Exercise like Exercise 165: 1. Mary was walking in the playground. 2. I was writing a letter, when who should walk in but uncle Tom! 3. Take the lid off the kettle. 4. The wind was so strong that his hat flew off. 5. The steady workman was placed over the other men. 6. Come over and help us! 7. I have not seen him since Christmas. 8. The book lay under the table. 9. The poor slaves were kept terribly under. 10. He went off without his greatcoat. 11. It is raining; but he persists in remaining without. 12. Walk on in front of me; but do not walk on the grass!

Exercise 167. Make twelve sentences, employing the following words first as adverbs, and then as prepositions: About, after, around, down, off, through.

Lesson 56.—Conjunctions.

- 1. A Conjunction is a sentence-joining word.
- 2. As verbs are the most essential parts of sentences, a conjunction may also be called a verb-connecting word.
- 3. Conjunctions are of two kinds: Co-ordinative and Subordinative.
- (i) Co ordinative Conjunctions are those which connect sentences and clauses of the same rank; such as, And; but: either-or; neither-nor. Take the sentence "Neither he nor I will go." This is a compound sentence made up of two sentences: "Neither will he go" "Nor will I go" But both sentences are of the same rank, the one is just as important as the other.
- (ii) Subordinative Conjunctions are those which connect subordinate sentences with the principal sentence. "I hear that he has gone from home." Here the sentence "he has gone from home "is subordinate to the principal sentence "I hear." The conjunction that, which joins them, is therefore a subordinative conjunction.
- (iii) The following are the most important subordinative conjunctions: That; if; while; since; unless; though; as; lest.
- (iv) The prepositions after, before, ere, till, since, and for, may also be employed as subordinative conjunctions.

Exercise 168. Arrange in separate columns, under the headings co-ordinative conjunctions and subordinative conjunctions, the conjunctions in the following sentences: 1. Come with us, and you will see him. 2. We all went, but Mary remained behind. 3. We have heard that he is gone to Australia. 4. The hunter trembled when he saw the lion. 5. Neither Tom nor Harry saw their father. 6. She would not speak lest she should waken the child. 7. Either the king was weak or his ministers were stupid. 8. Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him. 9. The bell was ringing just as we entered the station. 10. If he says so, it must be true. 11. Unless you write me, I shall stay at home. 12. While I was reading the paper, the train came up.

Exercise 169. State whether the words in italics are prepositions or subordinative conjunctions: 1. I walked after him. 2. No one spoke after he left. 3, Since you say so, I

quite believe it. 4. I have not seen him since five o'clock. 5. I will wait here till he comes. 6. We were obliged to wait till eight. 7. I paid sixpence for the book. 8. I am sure of the fact, for I saw the whole thing myself. 9. He had gone before they entered the room. 10. He walked out before me.

SUMMARY.

- 1. There are five kinds of words that are inflected: NOUNS; PRONOUNS; VERBS; ADJECTIVES; and ADVERBS.
 - 2. Prepositions and conjunctions are not inflected.
 - 3. Nouns are inflected for Number, Gender, and Case.
- 4. Pronouns are inflected for Number and Case; and the Third Personal Pronoun for Gender also.
 - 5. Adjectives are inflected for Comparison only.

But two adjectives are inflected for Number—This (which makes These), and That (which makes Those).

- 6. VERBS are inflected for Person, Number, Time, and Voice.
- (i) Person: I write; he writes.
- (ii) Number: he writes; they write.
- (in) Time: I write; I wrote.
- (iv) Voice: I strike; I am struck.
- 7. ADVERBS are inflected for Comparison only.

FIFTH METHOD OF PARSING.

When the lady saw the grim robber approaching, she turned and fled with all speed.

- 1. When is a conjunctive adverb. It is an adverb, because it modifies the verb saw. It is a conjunction, because it joins the two sentences "The lady saw" and "She turned." (It is a kind of "grammatical nail.")
- 2. Lady, a noun . . . common . . . of the singular number . . . in the nominative case. It is the subject of, or nominative to, the verb saw.
 - 3. Saw is a strong verb . . . active-transitive . . . past tense . . . indicative

- mood . . . 3d person . . . singular number. It governs robber in the objective case, and agrees with its nominative lady in number and person.
- 4. Grim is an adjective of quality . . . in the positive degree. It qualifies the noun robber. (It is spelled with two ms when compared.)
- 5 Robber is a noun... common... of the singular number... in the objective case. It is governed by the transitive verb saw.
- 6. Approaching is a participle or verbal adjective. It is the present participle of the verb approach; and it is an adjective, because it marks the noun robber.
- 7 She is a pronoun . . . personal . . . of the 3d person . . . singular number in the nominative case. It is the subject of, or nominative to, the verb turned.
- 8. Turned is a weak verb... intransitive... in the 3d person... singular number... in the past tense... indicative mood. It agrees with its nominative she in number and person.
- 9. And is a co-ordinative conjunction, joining two sentences of the same rank: "She turned" and "She fled"
 - 10. Fled is a weak verb . . . intransitive . . . in the 3d person, etc. (see Turned).
 - 11. With is a preposition, joining the noun speed to the verb fled.
- 12 All is an adjective or noun-marking word. It marks the noun speed. It is an adjective of quantity.
- 13. Speed is a noun... common... of the singular number... in the objective case. It is governed by the preposition with.
 - Exercise 170. Parse the words in the following sentence according to the fifth method: If it had not been for the generous aid which he received from his wife, his task would have been an impossible one.
 - Exercise 171. Parse the following in the same way: The general, knowing that the enemy was weakened by long marches, wished to act on the defensive.
 - Exercise 172. Parse the following in the same way: If the prisoners escaped the jail-fever, they were cut off by famine.
 - Exercise 173. Parse the following in the same way: Sir Walter Scott was one of those who was struck hard by the money-panic of 1825.
 - Exercise 174. Parse the following in the same way: George IV.'s visit to Ireland was the first peaceful visit that had ever been made by an English king.
 - Exercise 175. Parse the following in the same way: The Duke of Wellington showed his high ability in the Cabinet, as he had before displayed it on the field.



ETYMOLOGY. PART IV.

THE MAKING AND BRANCHING OF WORDS.

Lesson 57.—Accent and Pronunciation.

- 1. Every word in our language of two or more syllables has an accent placed upon one of them. Thus, in the word comprehend, the accent is on the last syllable; in the word mérrily, the accent is on the first.
- 2. The change in the **position** of an accent brings about a change in the **kind** of word. Shift the accent, and we turn a noun into a verb.
- (i) Thus we say: Liverpool is a trading city with large exports. Here exports is a noun. But, if we shift the accent and say: Liverpool exports iron ware, then the word exports is a verb.
- (i) In the same way, when the word accent has the accent on the first syllable accent), it is a noun; when on the last syllable (accent) it is a verb.
- 3. The following are the most important words that alter their function when they alter their accent:—

NOUNS.	VERBS.	NOUNS.	VERBS.
Accent	Accent	fmport	Impórt
Cómpound	Compound	Íncrease	Incréase
Concert	Concert	Ínsult	Insult
Conduct	Conduct	Object	Objéct
Conflict	Conflict	Pérfume	Perfume
Consort	Consort	Pérmit	Permit
Contract	Contract	Produce	Produce
Cónvert	Convért	Prótest	Protest
Convict	Convict	Rébel	Rebel
Exile	Exile	Récord	Record
Éxport	Export	Súbject	Subject
Éxtract	Extract	Torment	Torment 98

- 4. From the above we may collect the rule: If a dissyllable has the accent on the first syllable, it is a noun; if on the last, it is a verb.
- 5. A slight change in the pronunciation (and spelling) will also produce a change in the function. Thus we have:

NOUN.	VERB.	NOUN.	VERB.
Cloth	Clothe	Price	Prize
Grass	Graze	Use (=ce)	Use $(=ze)$
Grease (=ce)	Grease (=ze)		

Lesson 58.—Nouns and Verbs.

- 1. The same word may be used either as a noun or as a verb. Thus we can say: "We have had a good run;" and, "They run as fast as they can."
 - (i) In the first sentence, run is a noun, because it is the name of an action.
 - (ii) In the second sentence, run is a verb, because it tells something about They.
- 2. We can make sentences such as these where the same word is alternately used as a noun and as a verb.

NOUNS. VERES. 1. We saw a large ship 2. She showed her love too plainly 3. Tom is very fond of work 4. I have no fear of hin 5. We kept watch a long time 6. The carpenter's plane is sharp VERES. 1. We will ship the goods to-morrow 2. They love each other well 3. We work eight hours every day 4. They fear the long journey 5. They watch every night 6. The carpenter's plane is sharp 6. They planed it quite smooth

3. The following words, and many more, can be employed either as nouns or as verbs:

Air	Care	Cloud	Dream
Blow	Cart	Colour	Fear
Bottle	Case	Cover	Feast
Bound	Catch	Cure	Fly
Box	Challenge	Cut	Foot
Breakfast	Chisel	Double	Hammer

Hand	Love	Roost	Thunder
IIate	Mind	Run	Time
Head	Murder	Salt	Top
Hoe	Nerve	Saw	Trick
Hold	Nod	Seal	Trumpet
Hop	Nurse	Shade	Tumble
Hope	Pinch	Shake	Turn
Hunger	Plant	Share	Voice
Image	Play	Ship	Walk
Iron	Plunder	Show	War
Keep	Praise	Smile	Waste
Knife	Pull	Split	Watch
Letter	Right	Spoil	Winter
Link	Ring	Stone	Work
Look	Roll	Thirst	Wrong

Exercise 176. Make six pairs of sentences, each containing the name of a tool, which may be used either as a noun or as a verb.

Exercise 177. Make six pairs of sentences, each containing the name of a motion of the body, first used as a noun and then as a verb.

Exercise 178. Make twelve sentences, with the following words used alternately as nouns and as verbs: Blow, colour, dream, link, nurse, shade.

Lesson 59.—Nouns from Nouns and Verbs.

1. Some Nouns are formed from Nouns by a change in the vowel.

Band	Bond	Goat	Kid
Cat	Kit (or Kitten)	Gold	Gilt
Chip	Chop	Stake	Stock
Cock	Chick	Top	Tip

2. Some **Nouns** are derived from **Verbs** by a **change** in the **vowel**.

VERBS.	nouns.	VERBS.	NOUNS.
Bear	Bier	Gape	Gap
Bite	Bit	Knit	Knot
Bless	Bliss	Scrape	Scrap
Click	Clack	Sing	Song
Deal	Dole	Sneak	Snake

Net also comes from knit. The k has dropped off in the spelling, as it had previously fallen away from the pronunciation. A net is a bag made by knitting cord into knots,

3. Some Nouns are formed from Verbs by a change in the consonant.

VERBS.	NOUNS.	VERBS.	NOUNS.
Bake	Batch	Prove	Proof
Break	Breach	Say	Saw (a saying)
Dig	Ditch	Speak	Speech
Gird	Girth	Wake	Watch

Shakespeare has the phrase "full of wise saws and modern instances." This means "full of wise sayings and fashionable examples (or illustrations),"

4. Some Nouns are formed from Verbs by changing both Vowel and Consonant.

VERBS.	NOUNS.	VERBS.	NOUNS.
Choose	Choice		
Hold	Hilt	Weave	√ Web
Lose	Loss		(Weft

Exercise 179. Make NOUNS from the following VERBS: Bake, bear, bite, break, choose, click, dig, deal, gape, gird, hold, knit.

Exercise 180. Make Nouns from the following verbs: Lose, prove, say, scrape, sing, speak, sneak, wake, weave.

Lesson 60. Verbs from Nouns and other Verbs.

1. Some Verbs are derived from Nouns by a change in the vowel.

NOUNS.	VERBS.	NOUNS.	VERBS.
Blood	Bleed	Gold	Gild
Brood	Breed	Loan	Lend
Doom	Deem	Sale	Sell
Drove	Drive	Tale	Tell
Food	Feed		

A doom is a judgment. To deem is to judge. A judge in the Isle of Man is called a Deemster.

2. Some Verbs are derived from Nouns by lengthening the vowel.

NOUNS.	VERBS.	NOUNS.	VERBS.
Bath	Bathe	Grass	Graze
Breath	Breathe	House	House (z)
Cloth	Clothe	Thief	Thieve
Glass	Glaze	Wreath	Wreathe

3. Some Verbs are derived from other Verbs by changing the vowel.

Chop Din	Chip Dun	Rise	$\left\{egin{array}{l} ext{Raise} \ ext{Rouse} \end{array} ight.$
Drop	Drip	Shake	Shock
Drop	Droop	Sit	Set
Fall	Fell	Sniff	Snuff
Fly	Flee	Sop	Sip
Rest	Roost	Strike	Stroke

- (a) To dun is to keep dinning the fact of his debt into the ears of a debtor.
- (b) To fell is to make to fall; just as to set is to make to sit.
- (c) To stroke is to keep making a succession of small " strikes."
- 4. Some Verbs are derived from other Verbs by a change in the final consonant.

Clink	Clinch	Make	Match
D	(Draw	Stick	Stitch
Drag	Dredge	Wring	Wrench
Drink	Drench		

To drench is to make to drink; just as to fell is to make to fall.

Exercise 181. Make VERBS from the following NOUNS: Bath, blood, breath, brood, cloth, doom, drove, glass, grass, gold, loan, sale, thief, wreath.

Exercise 182. Make VERBS from the following VERBS: Chop, clink, din, drag, drink, fall, fly, make, rest, rise, sit, sniff, stick, strike, wring.

Lesson 61. Nouns from Verbs.

- 1. There are many ways of forming nouns from verbs. Thus, if we wish to speak of the doer of a thing, we add er, and say baker, fisher, speaker, grasshopper, cooler.
 - (i) Sometimes we use ar, or or, and say begg ar, liar, sail or.

A sailor is a man who sails; a good sailer is a ship that sails well.

- (ii) The Normans taught us to put in an i or a y, as in glazier, clothier, collier (a man who carries coals); lawyer, sawyer, bowyer (a man who made bows).
- (iii) In some words a t or a d has crept in: as in braggart (a person who brags), dast ard (a person who is dazed with fear), drunk ard, slugg ard (a person who is lazy like a slug).

- 2. That which is **done** is indicated by a **d**, a **t**, or a **th**, at the end of the word: as in **deed** (=that which is done) from **do**.
 - D, t_1 and th are all tooth-letters (or dentals). We can easily see this for ourselves, if we say id, it, and ith.
 - (i) Flood comes from flow; seed from sow; thread from throw.
- (ii) Drift comes from drive; rift from rive; theft from thieve; draft (or draught) from draw; and wett from weave.
- (iii) Berth (in a ship) comes from bear; death from die; earth from ear (an old word which meant to plough); and tilth from till.
- 3. The suffix m also makes nouns out of verbs, as in bloom from blow.
 - (i) We have in this way:

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Bloom	from	Blow	Qualm	from	Quell
Game	.,	Go	Seam	1,	Sew
Gloom	13	Glow	Steam	**	Stew
Groom	"	Grow	Stream	,,	Stray
Harm	,,	Harry (to lay waste)	Team	**	Tow (to drag)

- (ii) The old Norman word for royal was ré-al; and this, with the addition of \mathbf{m} , gives us realm.
 - 4. The prefix s seems to strengthen the verb; as,

Scratch	from	Crack	Scramble	from	Ramble
Scrunch	,,	Crunch	Smoulder	,,	Moulder
Scud	,,	Cut	Spatter	,,,	Patter
Saw	,,	Hew	Steep	,,	Dip
Shout	,,	Hoot	Strain	,,	Drain
Shove	"	Heave	Strew	,,	Throw
Smash	,,	Mash	Stumble	,,,	Tumble
Smelt		Melt	Swing	12	Wing

Exercise 183. Make NOUNS from the following VERBS: Beg, die, do, ear, fish, flow, hop, lie, sail, sow, speak, throw.

Exercise 184. Make NOUNS from the following VERBS: Blow, draw, go, glow, grow, harry, quell, sew, stew, stray, till, tow.

Lesson 62.—Nouns from Adjectives and other Nouns.

- 1. Many nouns are formed from adjectives. Thus we have width from wide; length from long; and breadth from broad.
- (i) In the same way we get dearth (=scarcity) from dear; mirth from merry; sloth from slow; and health from hale.
 - (a) The old spelling of sloth was slowth; and this is still felt in the pronunciation of sloth.
 - (b) In length, strength, width, and breadth, the vowel has been modified by the addition of the th.
- (ii) We also make nouns out of adjectives by adding ness. Thus we have darkness, holiness, weakness, and weariness, from dark, holy, weak, and weary.
 - (a) Take note that the final y becomes i when anything is added to it.
 - (b) Wilderness=wild-deer-ness.
- 2. Nouns are also formed from other nouns by the addition of such endings as dom, hood, herd, kind, man, ship, and wright.
- (i) Dom gives us Kingdom, Christendom (= the region of Christians), thraldom (= the state of being a thrall or slave).
 - (ii) With hood we make childhood, livelihood, manhood, priesthood.
 - (iii) With herd we make shepherd (= sheep herd), swineherd, gooseherd.
 - (iv) Kind gives us mankind, womankind, etc.
- (v) Man gives us bellman, chapman (=a man who sells in cheaps or markets), dustman, shipman, workman.
- (vi) Ship (=state) gives us apprenticeship, friendship, lordship, worship (=worth ship), and also authorship, generalship, seamanship, hardship, etc.
 - (vii) Wright (=workman) gives us playwright, shipwright, wheelwright.

Exercise 185. Make NOUNS from the following ADJECTIVES: Broad, dark, dear, hale, holy, long, merry, slow, strong, weak, weary, wide.

Exercise 186. Make NOUNS from the following NOUNS: Bell, child, friend, general, goose, lord, man, play, priest, seaman, sheep, ship, swine, thrall, wheel, woman, worth.

Lesson 63.—Diminutives and their Opposites.

1. Nouns are also formed from other nouns by adding such suffixes as ie, kin, le, let, etc. The words resulting are called diminutives. Thus we have:

Lass	lassie	Butt	· bottle (of hay)
Lad	laddie	Mouth	muzzle
Dog	doggie	Nose	nozzle
Man	mannıkin	Pot	pottle (of strawberries)

2. Increase in size, on the other hand, is expressed by such prefixes as bull, horse, and tom.

Bullfinch	Bullrush	1	Horse-chestnut	Horse-laugh
Bullfrog	Bulltrout		Horse-leech	Horse-radish
Tomboy	Tomcat	1.	Tom-fool	Tom-tit

Lesson 64.—Verbs from Nouns, Adjectives, and other Verbs.

1. We can also make verbs from nouns and from adjectives by adding er, or en, or le.

(i) Er makes (a) chatter from the noun chat; glimmer from gleam; glitter from glow; and loiter from lout. It makes (b) linger from the adjective long; lower from low. It also (c) makes fritter from fret; flutter from the verb flit; sputter from splt; and swagger from sway.

(ii) En makes (a) madden from the adjective mad; deepen, deaden, fatten, sweeten, sharpen, stiffen, thicken, whiten, from deep, dead, etc. etc. It also (b) makes frighten, heighten, lengthen, lighten from the nouns fright, height, etc.

(iii) Le or I enables us to make:

Crackle	from Cra	ick į	Joggle	from	Jog
Dabble	" Dal	b	Prattle	33	Prate
Dibble (to pla	nt) ,, Dip	,	Sparkle);	Spark
Dribble	" Dri	р	Startle	, ,,	Start
Dwindle	,, Dw	ine	Waddle	,,	Wade
Grapple	,, Gra	b or Grip	Kneel	,,	Knee

Exercise 187. Make VERBS from the following NOUNS, ADJECTIVES, and VERBS: Chat, deep, dead, fat, fret, fright, gleam, glow, height, light, long, lout, low, sharp, spit, stiff, sway, sweet, thick, white.

Exercise 188. Make VERBS from the following: Crack, dab, dip, drip, grab, jog, knee, prate, spark, start, wade.

Lesson 65.—Adjectives from Nouns, Verbs, etc.

- 1. We make adjectives from nouns by adding the suffixes on, fast, and ful (=full).
 - (i) We have:

Flaxen :	from	Flax		Oaken	from	Oak
Golden	"	Gold		Silken	11	Silk
Heathen	,,,	Heath		Silvern	. ,,	Silver
Hempen	,,	Hemp		Wooder	ı "	Wood

In old English this was a very favourite ending: and we had such words as ashen, beechen, birchen, wheaten, yewen, glassen, frem (=of fire), etc.

- (ii) Past gives us steadfast (=fast or fixed in the stend or place), rootfust, soothfust, (=firm to the truth).
 - (iii) Ful makes for us hateful, sinful, wilful, etc. Note that will and full each drops an I.
- 2. Adjectives are also formed from nouns and other adjectives by the addition of ish, less, and like—which is softened into ly.

Ish (a) makes bookish, boorish, childish, churlish, outlandish, waspish. It also (b) makes from adjectives, blackish, whitish, reddish, etc. It also (c) makes adjectives of nationality, as Danish (from Dane); British (from Britain); English, French (= Frankish).

Exercise 189. Make ADJECTIVES from the following NOUNS and ADJECTIVES: Black, book, boor, child, flax, gold, heath, red, silk, silver, sin, wasp, white, wood.

Lesson 66.—Compound Nouns.

1. We make Compound Nouns by adding a noun to a noun, as:

Bed-fellow	Fish-wife	Prize-ox
Cart-horse	Hand-loom	Ship-mate
Dog-kennel	Hymn-book	Time-piece
Edge-tool	Nut-cracker	Vine-yard

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(i) It will be seen that the first noun acts as a kind of adjective on the second, and limits its meaning. A cart-horse is a horse that is only employed in carts.

(ii) Sometimes one of the nouns takes a different form and disguises itself. Thus we have:

By-law Gospel Nightingale
Daisy Huzzy Orchard

- (a) A by-law was originally a law for a by (Danish for town, as in Whitby, Grimsby, etc.).
 (b) Daisy = Day's eye.
 (c) Gospel = God's spell (or story).
 (d) Huzzy = Housewife.
 (e) Nightingale=Singer in the night.
 (f) Orchard=Wortyard (or herb garden).
- 2. We make Compound Nouns by adding an adjective to a noun, as:

Blackbird Midnight Redshank
Freeman Quicksilver Redstart (=tail)
Hotspur Redbreast Twilight (=two light)

3. We make Compound Nouns by adding a verb to a noun:

 Bakehouse
 Grindstone
 Spendthrift

 Cutpurse
 Pickpocket
 Wagtail

 Godsend
 Pinfold
 Washtub

4. We make Compound Nouns by adding a verb to an adverb:

Castaway Farewell Welcome
Drawback Income Welfare

Exercise 190. Make compound nouns out of the following: Bird, book, cracker, eye, horse, kennel, light, loom, man, mate, night, ox, piece, silver, shank, wife, yard.

Exercise 191. Make compound nouns out of the following: Bake, cast, come, cut, draw, fare, grind, pick, pin, spend, wag, wash.

Lesson 67.—Compound Adjectives.

1. We make Compound Adjectives by joining a noun to an adjective:

Bloodred Headstrong Nutbrown Threadbare Thunderstruck Bloodthirsty Heartsick Purseproud Brimful Irongrey Seagreen Watertight Wayweary Claycold Lifelong Snowwhite Stoneblind Weatherwise Footsore Lilywhite

2. We make Compound Adjectives by joining a noun to a present participle (=an adjective):

 Death-boding
 Home-keeping
 Night-waking

 Ear-pieroing
 Life-giving
 Sea-faring

 Heart-rending
 Night-faring
 Spirit-stirring

- (i) Man has been defined as "a tool-and-weapon-using" animal.
- (ii) Another definition is that of "a fire-using-and-cooking" animal.
- 3. We make Compound Adjectives by joining a noun to a past participle (=an adjective):

Sea-walled Air-born Heart-broken Snow-crowned Book-learned Iron-bound Moss-clad Tempest-tossed Copper-fastened Eagle-eved Moss-grown Thunder-struck Weather-beaten Moth-eaten Earth-born Forest-born Wind-dried Sea-girt

4. We make Compound Adjectives by the formula Noun +noun+ed:

Angelwinged Finfooted Lilyhanded
Arrowwounded Harebrained Lionhearted
Clubfooted Ironhearted Oarfinned
Doghearted Lilylivered Trumpet-tongued

5. We make Compound Adjectives by the formula Adjective+noun+ed:

Barefooted Newfashioned Goodnatured Bareheaded Highminded Openhearted Blackfaced Hardhanded Shortwinded Cold blooded Highsouled Sweettempered Dullwitted Hotblooded Thickheaded Emptyheaded Lightfingered Thinlipped Evilminded Lightheaded Threecornered Fourfooted Longbreathed Threestoried Foursided Longsighted Twolegged Greyheaded Longwinded Twomasted Goodhumoured Narrowminded Whiteheaded

Exercise 192. Make COMPOUND ADJECTIVES out of the following: Blood, brim, clay, death, ear, foot head, heart, home, lip,

lily, night, nut, purse, sea, snow, spirit, thread, thunder, water, weather.

Exercise 193. Make COMPOUND ADJECTIVES out of the following: Air, angel, book, dog, eagle, earth, fire, forest, iron, lion, moss, moth, oar, sea, snow, tempest, thunder, trumpet, weather, wind.

Exercise 194. Make COMPOUND ADJECTIVES out of the following: Bare, black, cold, dull, empty, four, grey, good, high, light, long, new, open, sweet, thin, three, two, white.

Lesson 68.—Compound Verbs.

1. We make Compound Verbs by joining a verb and a noun:

Backbite Browbeat Hamstring Henpeck Hoodwink Kilndry

2. We make Compound Verbs by joining a verb and an adjective:

Dumbfound

Fulfil (=fill full)

Whitewash

3. We make Compound Verbs by joining a verb and an adverb:

Cross-question	Overdo	Outstrip
Doff (=do off)	Overdrive	Understand
Don (=do on)	Overlook	Undertake
Outdo	Overturn	Withdraw
Outrun	Overwork	Withhold
Overcome	Outshine	Withstand

- (i) The with in withstand, etc., is not the common preposition with. The old meaning of with is against. Therefore withstand = stand against.
 - (ii) The word drawing-room has dropped the with. It used to be withdrawing-room.

Exercise 195. Make COMPOUND VERBS out of the following: Cross, dumb, full, off, on, out, over, under, with, white.

Lesson 69.—Compound Adverbs.

1. We make Compound Adverbs by adding an adjective to a noun, as:

Always	Likewise	Meanwhile
Half-way	Otherwise	Meantime
Straightway	Awhile	Sometime

2. We make Compound Adverbs by adding the preposition a to a noun, as:

Aback	Adrift	$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{g}\mathbf{o}\mathbf{g}$	Apace
Abed	Afield	Aground	Ashore
Abroad	Afloat	Ahead	Asleep
Abreast	Afoot	Aloft	Away

- (1) The preposition a is a broken-down form of an (the old form of our modern on).
- (ii) The word gog is an old noun which meant cagerness.

3. We make Compound Adverbs by adding the preposition a to an adjective, as:

Abroad	Alike	Amid	Around
Acold	Along	Anear	Aware
Afar	Aloud	Anew	Awry

4. We make Compound Adverbs by adding a or an to numeral adjectives, as:

Anon Atween Atwixt Atwo

Anon=an one (that is, at once). It was the common cry of waiters in the seventeenth century. It used to mean at once; but it soon came to mean by-and-bye.

Exercise 196. Make COMPOUND ADVERBS out of the following: All, back, broad, cold, drift, far, ground, half, like, mean, new, other, pace, shore, some, wry.

SAXON, LATIN, AND GREEK WORDS IN ENGLISH.

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE which we all speak was brought over to this island in the fifth century by a number of persons who were called Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, and who came from the north-west of the country we now call Germany. When they came to this island, they found a people who did not speak English, but who spoke a language called Celtic, very like that which is spoken in Wales and in the Highlands of Scotland to this day. The English Language which these Angles and others brought with them remained pure and unmixed for about six centuries. At length hordes of Norman-French came over in 1066, and brought with them a kind of French, many words of which found their way into our English speech.

When the English tongue was pure and unmixed, it was in the habit of "growing" its own words; and from what is called a root many different words sprouted and came into common use. Thus there was an old verb, scir-an, to cut, which brought forth quite a number of very useful words. It gave us, for example, shear (=to cut); shire, a piece of land cut off; share, a piece of anything cut off and divided; shore, the line of land cut by the sea; score, a deep cut; sheer, as it were cut sharp off (said of a cliff); short, with too much cut off; shears, instruments for cutting; sharp, easy to cut with; and others.

But, when the Norman-French came and brought with them thousands of French words, many of these words mixed with the language. From that time the English gave up growing their own

¹ When a shepherd was "telling his tale" of sheep—that is, counting his flock, he made a notch on a piece of stick for each sheep; but, at the twentieth, he made a deep cut; and that deep cut was called a score.

English words in their own English (or Saxon) garden; and, when a new word was wanted, they borrowed it from the Normans, and did not go to the English tree of their own growing for a new word. Many of the Norman words pushed out the old English and more homely words. Thus the French carpenter pushed out the English word wright (grown from work); again-rising was displaced by resurrection; Haeland (="The Healing One") was pushed out to make way for the word saviour. The English dropped the word wanhope, and adopted the French word despair; the place of learning-knight was taken by disciple; book-hoard had to give way to library, gold-hoard to treasury; and earth-tilth was thought too homely a term, and the long French (or Latin) word agriculture took its place.

But, before the coming of the Normans, we had a large number of pure English or Anglo-Saxon roots; and the following is a list of the most important of them:—

ANGLO-SAXON ROOTS.

Æcer, a field: acre, acorn (=fruit of the field). It is not = "oak-corn." Chaucer has the phrase "acorns of oaks."

Æithele, noble: Atheling, Athelstan, Ethelred.

Bacan, to bake: bake, batch, baxter (=bacster, female baker).

Bana, a murderer: bane, henbane. Beatan, to strike: beat, beetle (a mal-

Bed, a prayer: bead, bead-roll, beads-man.

Belg, a bag: bag, bagpipe, bellows, bulge.

Bellan, to bellow: bell, bellow, bull. Beódan, to bid or proclaim: bid, bidding, forbid, beadle.

Beorgan, to protect: borough, burgh, Edinburgh, burgher, Bury St. Edmunds, Canterbury, borrow, burrow. (In the south of England the softer form bury prevails.)

Bindan, to fasten: bind, bindweed, woodbine, band, bond, bundle.

Bitan, to bite: bite, bit. bitter, bait, beetle (insect).

Blówan, to blossom: blow (of flowers), blossom, blood.

Bot, advantage: bootless, to boot. Brecan, to break: break, breach, breakers, breakfast.

Breówan, to brew: brew, broth, brewster (=female brewer).

Bugan, to bend: bow (to bend), bow (a weapon), buxom (= in O.E. obedient). Byrnan, to burn: burn, brand, brimstone.

Ceap, market: cheap, Cheapside, Eastcheap, chapman, chaffer, Chepstow, Chipping Norton (=Marketing Norton).

Ceówan, to chew: chew, jaw.

Cleófan, to split: cleave, cleaver, cleft. Corn, grain: corn, kernel.

Cunnan, to know: cunning, can, could, uncouth, con.

Cwelan, to die: quail, qualm, quell. Cwic, living: quick, quicksilver, quick-

Cyn, a tribe: kin, kinsman, kindred, king.

Dæg, day: day, holiday, daisy, dawn.

Dæl, a share: deal (a quantity), deal (a board), deal (to distribute), dealer, dole, dale, dell.

Deór, a wild animal: deer, Derby, Durham. (Shakespeare calls mice "small deer.")

Deóre, precious: dear, dearth, darling (=httle dear).

Dic, a ditch; dike, ditch, dig.

Dóm, judgment: doom, Doomsday, kingdom, deem, deemster (a judge in the Isle of Man).

Don, to do: do, ado, don (=do on), doff (=do off), dout (=do or put out).

Dragan, to pull: drag, draggle, draw, draught, draught-board, draughtsman, draft, drawl, dray.

Drifan, to drive: drive, drift, adrift, drove, drover.

Drincan, to drink: drink, drunkard, drench, drown.

Eá, water: island (in O. E. ealand), Chelsea, Athelney.

Eage, eye: Egbert, eye, daisy (=day's eye).

Eal, all: all, altogether, always, also, alone, withal.

Eald, old: old, elder, eld, alderman.

Faran, to go: fare, farewell, welfare, thoroughfare, field-fare, wayfarer, ferry, ford.

Feówer, four: four, fourteen, forty, farthing (=fourth part).

Fleógan, to fly: fly, flight.

Fleotan, to float: fleet (verb), fleet (swift), fleet (of ships), float, flutter.

Fóda, food: food, fodder, foster, feed, feeder.

Fúl, foul: foul, filth, defile.

Gangan, contr. gan, to go: gang, gangway, go.

Geard, an enclosure: yard, vineyard, orehard (=wort-yard).

God, God: God, godfather, godly, gospel (=God's spell or story) gossip (=sib or related in God), good-bye (=God be with you).

God, good: good, goods, goodly, good-will.

Grafan, to dig: grave (to carve), grave (for the dead), graver, engrave, groove.

Grinan, to saiza: grine, grin, grone.

Gripan, to seize: gripe, grip, grope, grasp.

Gyrdan, to enclose: gird, girdle, girth. Habban, to have: have, behave, haft.

Hál, whole; hálig, holy: heal, health, wassail, whole, wholesale, wholesome; hallow, holy, holiday, hollyhock.

Hand, hand: hand, handle, handsome, handsel, handy, handieraft, handiwork.

Hangian, to hang: hang, hanger, hanker. Hebban, to raise up: heave, coalheaver, heavy, heaven.

Hláf, a loaf: loaf, lord (=hláford), lady (=hlæfdige), Lammas (=hláfmæsse).

Hwá, who: who, what, which, when, where, whether, why.

Lad, a path: lead (verb), lode, lodestar, lodestone.

Licgan, to lie down: lie, lay, lair, layer. Mang, a crowd, a number: among, costermonger, mongrel, mingle.

Máwan, to mow: mow, mead, meadow, math (=a mowing), aftermath.

Mót, a meeting: witenagemot, shiremote, moot, meet.

Neáh, nigh: nigh, neighbour, near, next. Nether, below: nether, nethermost, beneath.

Nosu, the nose: nose, nosegay, nostril (=nose-thirl), nozzle (=a little nose).

Pennan, to enclose: pen (for sheep), pent, breath-penning (=consonant).

Ræd, advice, counsel: Ethelred, rede, read, riddle.

Sceapan, to form: landscape, shape, friendship, worship.

Sceotan, to shoot: scot-free (without payment or contribution), shoot, shot, shut, shutter, shuttle.

Sceran, to cut: shear, shears, share, ploughshare, shire, shore, short.
Sittan. to sit: sit, set, settle, settee.

Spinnan, to spin: spin, spindle, spinster, spider (=spinder).

Stede, a place: stead, steadfast, steady, instead, bedstead.

Stician, to stick: stick (verb), stick (noun), sticky, stickleback, stitch, stake, stoke, stockade.

Stigan, to rise, climb: sty (in the eye), sty (for pigs), steward (=sty-ward), stile, stirrup (=rope for rising), stair.

Stów, a place: stow, stowage, bestow. Chepstow (=market-place), Walthamstow. Strang, strong: strong, stronghold, strength, string.

Talu, a number, a tale: tale, tell, tell-tale.

Thyrlian, to pierce: thrill, nostril.

Tredan, to tread: tread, treadle, trade (a way of life). Treowe, true: true, trow, truth, troth,

Freówe, true: true, trow, truth, troth, betrothe.

Twa, two: two, twain, twelve, twenty, twice, twin, twine, twilight, twist, between, betwixt. Wær, cautious: wary, aware, beware.

Weorc, work: work, wrought, wright.

Witan, to know: wit, witenagemote, witness, witch, twit (=at wit), wot.

Wrecan, to wreak: wreak, wreck, wrack, wretch, wretched.

Writhan, to twist: writhe, wreath, wreathe, wroth, wrath, wrist, wrest, wrestle.

From the well-known and fateful year 1066 the kind of French spoken by the Normans was the language of the ruling classes in England for nearly three hundred years. It certainly was the only language used in the law-courts of this country till 1362—that is, for three hundred years all but four.

Now French is only Latin which has undergone a change by long residence in France. Latin is the language that was spoken by the Romans—a short, swarthy, active, brave, and very intelligent people of Italy, who at one time held the whole of the known world within their grasp. The Romans planted military colonies in all parts of Gaul (which was the old name of France); and these Roman soldiers mixed with the Celtic people of Gaul, and taught them also to speak Latin. In course of time they learned it; but, in the learning of it, they made great changes both in the look of the word and on the pronunciation of it. Both the spelling and the sound were altered. Thus the Romans had the word populus; the French people of the South turned this into peuple, and the French people of the North into people. The Romans said caput; the French softened it into chef, which gave us our word chief. The Romans had the word factum (=a deed); and the French turned this into fait, which gives our English word feat. French has been called "Latin with the ends bitten off," and this description is true. Several thousands of these French words have come into our English language; and we use many of them every day. Such are, debt, perceive, assist, precise, etc.

But another very remarkable thing happened to our language in the fifteenth century. The Turks marched over from Asia, attacked and took (in 1453) the great city of Constantinople, which was the city

that formed the connecting link between the trade of the East and the trade of the West. Constantinople was full of students, scholars, and learned men; full of books and libraries. Now the Turks have always been mere soldiers; and they hated and still hate learning and study, students and scholars. So these scholars had to put their Greek and Latin books under their arms, or on their backs, and run away from Constantinople, for fear of the dreaded "unspeakable Turk." They departed and spread themselves over Europe, found their way into Italy and Spain and France. Some came to Englandto Oxford, and to Cambridge,—and taught Greek there. Then began what is called the Revival of Learning. Men and women in England began to study Greek and Latin with the greatest zeal. Queen Elizabeth (who was born in 1533) could read Greek, and could speak Latin; Lady Jane Grey (who was Queen of England for nine days) could do the same. Then many thousands of Latin words began to pour into our language with hardly any change. Thus opinionem became opinion; the end of notionem was chopped off and it became notion; and the same thing was done to separatum, which became separate.

The following are a few of the more important Latin words which have come into our language; and they too come from roots. But these roots did not grow in our soil; we have simply borrowed the Latin words all ready-made, have imported them, and now use them every day. But though we use them, they never were English in origin; we did not grow them, we only adopted or imported them:—

LATIN ROOTS.

- Ager, a field: agrarian, agriculture.
 Ago, actum, Ido: agent, agile, agitate;
- act, actual, active.
- Altus, high: altar, altitude, exalt.

 Amo, amātum, I love: amorous;
- amatory.

 Amicus, a friend: amicable, amiable,
- Angulus, a corner: angular, angle, tri-
- Anima, breath: animal, animate, inanimate.

- Animus, the mind: animosity, animadvert, unanimous.
- Annus, a year: annals, annual, anniversary, triennial.
- Appello, I call: appellant, appeal, repeal.
- Aqua, water: aquatic, aquarium, aqueous, aqueduct.
- Ars, artis, skill: art, artist, artisan, artifice.
- Audio, auditum, I hear: audible, audience, audit, auditory.

Bene, well: benediction, benefactor, benefit.

Cado, casum, I fall: cadence, decadence; case, casual.

Caedo, caesum, I cut, I kill: decide, suicide; excise, concise, precision.

Cano, cantum, I sing: cant, canto, chant, enchant.

Capio, captum, I take: capable, capacious receive; captive, capture, except. Caput, capitis, the head: capital, captain, chapter, chief (through French chef).

Cedo, cessum, I go or yield: cede, precede; exceed, proceed, excess, procession.

Circus, a ring: circular, circle, circumference, circuit.

Cito, citātum, I call: cite, excite; recitation.

Clamo, clamatum, I shout: clamour, proclaim; exclamation.

Clino, I slope: incline, decline.

Cor, cordis, the heart: courage; cordial, accord, discord.

Corpus, corporis, the body: corps, corpse; corporal, corporeal.

Credo, creditum, I trust, believe: creed, credible, credulous; credit.

Curro, cursum, Iran: current, occur; course, cursory, excursion.

Dens, dentis, a tooth: dental, dentist, indent.

Dico, dictum, I say: diction, predict, contradict.

Doceo, doctum, I teach: docile, doctor, doctrine.

Dominus, a lord: dominate, dominion.

don, dame (Fr.), madam (Fr.).

Duco, ductum, I lead: reduce, duke; ductile, conduct, conduit (Fr.).

Facilis, easy: facile, facility, difficult (formerly difficile).

Facio, factum, I do: suffice; fact, manufacture, effect, feat (Fr.), counterfeit (Fr.).

Fero, latum, I carry: transfer, refer, translate, relate.

Fido, I trust: confide, diffident, fidelity. Fingo, fictum, I fashion, pretend: feign (Fr.); fiction, fictitious.

Finis, an end: fine (a payment), "in fine," final, confine.

Finio, finitum, I make an end: finish; define; finite, definite, fine (adjective).

Fluo, fluxum, fluctum, I flow: fluent. influence: flux; fluctuate.

Fra(n)go, fractum, I break: fragile, frail (Fr.), fragment; fraction, refract. Fundo, fusum, I pour: foundry: fuse

(verb), confuse, profusion.

Gradior, gressus, I step: gradient, grade, gradual; progress, digression.

Habeo, habitum, Ihave, Ihold: habit, prohibit. exhibition.

Jacio, jactum, Ithrow: reject, subject, projectile, jet (of water, Fr.).

Judex, judicis, a judge: judicial, judicious, judge, prejudice, judicature.

Jungo, junctum, I unite: join (Fr.); junction, juncture, adjunct, joint.

Lego, lectum, I choose, I read: legend, legible, diligent; lecture, intellect, select, elector.

Linquo, lictum, I leave: relinquish; relict, relic (Fr.).

Locus, a place: local, locomotive, locate, allocate.

Loquor, locutus, I speak: eloquent, colloquy; elocution.

Ludo, lusum, I play: interlude, elude; delusion, illusion.

Magnus, great: magnate, magnanimous, magnify.

Malus, bad: malady, malice (Fr.), malevolent, malefactor.

Manus, hand: manage, manual, manufacture, maintain (Fr.).

Medius, middle: medium, mediate, immediate.

Memor, mindful: memory, memoir (Fr.), memorable, remember.

Metior, mensus, I measure: immense (= not measurable), commensurate, measure.

Minor, minus, less: minor, minority; minute, diminish.

Mitto, missum, I send: intermittent, permit, remit; mission, dismiss.

Modus, measure, manner: mode, model, modify, modulate.

Moneo, monitum, I advise: monitor, admonish.

Moveo, motum, 1 move: move, mobile (Fr.); motion, motive, promote.

Numerus, a number: numeral, numerous, number.

Nuncio, I announce: pronunciation, pronounce, renounce.

Omnis, all: omnibus, omnipotent, omnivorous.

Ordo, ordinis, rank: ordinal, ordinary, ordain, order (Fr.).

Pando, pansum, passum, I stretch: expand; expanse; pass, passage, trespass, pace (all these four through Fr.).

pass, pace (all these four through Fr.).

Par, equal: par, disparity, pair, peer (Fr.).

Paro, I prepare: pare, prepare, repair (Fr.), separate.

Pars, partis, a portion: part, party, partial, partisan, participate, parcel (Fr.).

Pater, patris, a father: paternoster, paternal; patrimony, patron, patriot, parricide (=patricide).

Patior, passus, I suffer: patient; passion, passive.

Pax, pacis, peace: pacific, pacify, peace, appease (Fr.).

appease (Fr.).
Pello, pulsum, I drive: repellent, ex-

pel; pulse, repulse, expulsion.

Pendeo, I hang: pendant, pendent, depend, pendulum.

Pendo, pensum, I weigh, I pay, I ponder: suspend, expend; suspension, expense, pensive; poise (Fr.).

Pes, pedis, the foot: pedal, biped, pedestrian, expedition.

Peto, petītum, I seek: compete, repeat; petition.

Placeo, I please: placid, complacent, complaisant (Fr.), please (Fr.), pleasure (Fr.).

Plico, I bend: applicant, complicate, apply, ply, pliant (Fr.).

Pono, positum, I place: postpone, exponent, expound; position, deposit, post.

Populus, a nation: popular, populace, people (Norman-French).

Premo, pressum, I press: press, repression, expressive.

Primus, first: prime, primrose, primitive, premier (Fr.), prince (Fr.), principal (adj.), principle (noun),

Probo, I prove: probation, probable, prove.

Pungo, punctum, I prick: pungent, poignant (Fr.); punctual, compunction, point (Fr.).

Radix, radicis, a root: radical, eradicate, radish.

Rapio, raptum, Iseize: rapine, rapid; rapt, rapture.

Rego, rectum, I rule: regent, regi ment, regal, regular, royal (Fr.), rule; rector, direct.

Salio, saltum, I leap: salient, sally (Fr.), assail (Fr.); assault, insult.

Scribo, scriptum, I write: scribe, describe; scripture, description, manuscript.

Sedeo, sessum, I sit: sedentary, supersede, preside; session, assize (Fr).

Sentio, sensum, I perceive: sentient, sentiment, sentence; sense, sensible, sensitive.

Sequor, secutus, I follow: sequence consequent, second; persecute, consecutive; sue, suit, suite (all three Fr.).

Specio, spectum, I look: species, specious, specimen; spectacle, spectator, spectre, aspect, perspective.

Spondeo, sponsum, I promise: respond; sponsor, responsible.

Sto, statum, I stand: stable; state, station, statue, stature, statute, constitute, institution.

Sumo, sumptum, I take: assume, resume; assumption.

Tango, tactum, I touch: tangent, tangible, attain (Fr.); tact, contact.

Tempus, tempŏris, time: tense (Fr.); temporal, temporary.

Tendo, tentum, tensum, I stretch: tend, pretend, attendant; tent, contention; tense (adjective), tension, extensive.

Teneo, tentum, I hold: tenant, tenable, tenement, contain (Fr.), continent; content.

Traho, tractum, I draw: subtrahend; tract (of country), tract (a pamphlet), contract, trait (Fr.), treat (Fr.), treatise.

Utor, usus, I use: utensil, utilise: use, usual, abuse,

Valeo, I am strong: valiant, valid, invalid, value, prevail (Fr.).

Venio, ventum, I come: convene, convenient; adventure, prevent, invention.

Verto, versum, I turn: vertex, convert; verse (=turned speech), version, perverse.

Verus, true: verity, veracious, very, verdict, aver.

Video, visum, I see: provide, evident; vision, visible.

Vinco, victum, I conquer: convince, invincible, vanquish (Fr.); convict, victory.

Vivo, victum, I live: vivid, revive, convivial; victuals (Fr.).

Volo, I wish: voluntary, volunteer, voluptuous, benevolent.

Voveo, votum, I vow: vote, vow, devote, devout.

Vox, vocis, the voice: vocal, vociferous, advocate, provoke, voice (Fr.) vowel, (Fr.).

There are also a good many Greek words in our language; and the following are the most frequently used of these:

GREEK ROOTS.

Angelos, a messenger: angel, evan-

Anthropos, a man: misanthrope (= man-hater), philanthropy.

Arithmos, number: arithmetic. Biblion, a book: bibliography, Bible

(=the Book). Chronos, time: chronic, chronology,

chronometer. Demos, the people: democrat, dema-

gogue (=leader of the people), epidemic. Grapho, I write: graphic, biography,

grammar. Hodos, a way: exodus, method, epis-

ode (=a by-the-way). Logos, a word, speech : logic, dialogue.

geology, astrologer. Mětron, a measure: metre, metrical,

thermometer, geometry (=earth-measuring).

Monos, alone, only : memastery, monogram, monopoly, monk.

Naus, a ship: nausea, nautical, nautilus. Ode, a song, a poem : ode, melody, parody (= a song like another), comedy. tragedy.

Onoma, onyma, a name: anonymous, synonym.

Orthos, correct: orthodox, orthography.

Pathos, feeling: pathos, pathetic, apathy, sympathy. Philos, fond of: philosopher, philan-

thropy, bibliophile. Scopos, a watcher: scope, microscope,

bishop (=episcopos, an overseer), episcopal.

Theos, a god: theology, theism, polytheist, atheist.

SYNTAX

- 1. When we use words, we use them in sentences. When we use them in sentences, we arrange or put them together according to certain rules and customs.
- 2. The collection of rules and customs for putting words together is called Syntax.

I. SYNTAX OF THE NOUN.

RULE 1. The Subject of a sentence is in the Nominative Case.

(i) We say I write, he writes. I is the subject of write; he is the subject of writes. Both subjects are in the nominative.

(ii) Every nominative must have a verb; but sometimes the verb is understood "Who is there?" "I" (="I am"). "He is stronger than you (=are strong)."

Exercise 197. Point out (or write down) the Subjects in the following sentences: 1. The squirrel ran up the tree. 2. The hawk hovered over the poor little sparrow. 3. The castle's bound I wander round, amid the grassy graves. 4. Round the rugged rocks the ragged rascal ran. 5. A little boat darted out of the creek. 6. The treachery of a single servant might have ruined the enterprise. 7. In the bright October morning Savoy's Duke had left his bride. 8. From her mullioned chamber, casement smiles the Duchess Marguerite. 9. Down the forestridings lone, furious, single horsemen gallop. 10. 'Mid the Savoy mountain-valleys, far from town or haunt of men, stands a lonely church unfinished. 11. On the work the bright sun shines. 12. There they found her on the mountains.

Exercise 198. Work this like Exercise 197: 1. The lightest wind was in its nest the tempest in its home. 2 Less oft is 114

peace in Shelley's mind, than calm in waters seen. 3. From far the lowings come of cattle driven home. 4. He waved his proud hand, and the trumpets were blown. 5. Man cannot cover what God would reveal. 6. What steed to the desert flies frantic and far? 7. Their hoof-beaten bosoms are trod to the plain. 8. A steed comes at morning: no rider is there; but its bridle is red with the sign of despair. 9. Their swords are a thousand, their bosoms are one! 10. Never shall Albin a destiny meet so black with dishonour. 11. Rome, for empire far renowned, tramples on a thousand states. 12. Other Romans shall arise heedless of a soldier's name.

RULE 2. When one noun is used to describe another noun (or pronoun), both nouns are in apposition; and they are always in the same case.

- (i) "William the Conqueror invaded England." Here "the Conqueror" describes "William." But "William" is in the nominative case to "invaded." Therefore "Conqueror" is also in the nominative case.
- (ii) "The soldiers heard Peter the Hermit." Here "Peter" is in the objective case, governed by heard. But "the Hermit" is in apposition with "Peter." Therefore "the Hermit" is also in the objective case.

Exercise 199. Point out the Nouns (or Pronouns) in Approsition in the following sentences: 1. Peter the Hermit preached a Crusade. 2. John the Baptist was put to death. 3. From Vienna, by the Danube, here she came, a bride, in spring. 4. The gnats whirl in the air, the evening gnats. 5. William the Conqueror won the Battle of Senlac. 6. It is the lark, the herald of the morn! 7. Sage beneath the spreading oak sate the Druid, hoary chief. 8. Whang the miller was a very idle fellow. 9. Our good father Tiber bare bravely up his chin. 10. So we were left galloping, Joris and I. 11. O! was there ever such a knight, in friendship or in war, as our sovereign lord, King Henry, the soldier of Navarre? 12. We behold their tender buds expand—emblems of our own great resurrection, emblems of the bright and better land.

RULE 3. The verb to be (with many verbs like it) takes the same case after it as before it.

(i) "General Wolseley is an able soldier." Here Wolseley is the subject of, or the nominative to, the verb is. But Wolseley is the soldier and the soldier is Wolseley;

therefore the noun soldier is also in the nominative case. Whatever is true of the one word is true of the other.

- (ii) "I found him to be a forger." Here him is in the objective case. But the person indicated by the pronoun him is the forger; and the forger is him. Therefore the noun forger is also in the objective case.
- (iii) The verbs become, live, prove, seem, remain, etc., are in this respect like the verb be, that they take the same case after them as before them. Thus we say:

 Tom became a soldier. He lived a hermit all his days. She seemed a fairy. "She moves a goddess; and she looks a queen." In this last sentence, she, goddess, and queen are all in the nominative case.
- (iv) These verbs are sometimes called appositional verbs. In the same class may be placed the passive verbs is made, was appointed, is proclaimed, is thought, will be created, etc.

Exercise 200. Point out the Nouns (or Pronouns) in the same case before and after be, become, live, etc.: 1. John Brown is a carpenter. 2. Harry grew up a fine young fellow. 3. He remained a dunce all his days. 4. She seemed a goddess in our childish eyes! 5. It is the nightingale, and not the lark! 6. We heard that the man had turned-out a swindler. 7. Mr. Jones was born heir to a great estate. 8. It is an ancient mariner. 9. Mr. Carnegie returned to Scotland a millionaire. 10. She was born a milkmaid, but became a duchess. 11. The man proved a complete deceiver. 12. She looked the loveliest woman in the whole room.

Exercise 201. Point out the APPOSITIONAL VERBS in the following sentences, and mention the NOMINATIVES that go before and after them: 1. He looks a low fellow. 2. The man was found lying near the river. 3. George I. was proclaimed king. 4. Mr. Smith will be appointed manager of the railway. 5. He seems an honest man. 6. John was called a hero. 7. The Duke was created commander-in-chief. 8. The boy was thought a very noble lad. 9. She looks a goddess, and she moves a queen! 10. The child was named John.

RULE 4. When a noun is in company with another word or words, but is not connected with any part of the sentence, the two or more words are said to be in the nominative absolute.

The word absolute means freed. The nominative absolute means that this nominative case is freed from any connection with or dependence on any other word in the sentence.

- (i) "Dinner over, we went up-stairs." Here the two words "Dinner over" have no connection with any other word in the sentence; and Dinner is in the nominative case.
- (ii) "The wind shifting, we had to alter our course." Here the three words "The wind shifting" have no connection with any other word in the sentence, and the noun wind is in the nominative case.

Exercise 202. Point out (or write out) the NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE in each of the following sentences: 1. Good Friday falling next day, we could not go. 2. The signal having been given, off went the train. 3. The wind having fallen, we dropt anchor in the bay. 4. The ruined merchant went to bed, his heart heavy with fear and sorrow. 5. She earns a scanty pittance, and at night lies down secure, her heart and pocket light. 6. The trial having ended, the Court rose. 7. No further news having been received of the "Midge," the expedition returned. 8. The business over, the committee broke up. 9. A customer coming in, Mr. Gilpin had to go and attend to him. 10. Loop and button failing both, the cloak flew away. 11. My pipe broken, there was an end of my smoking. 12. The turnpike gates flew open, the toll-men thinking that Gilpin rode a race.

RULE 5. The pronoun it is sometimes used as a nominative. (It is used to prepare the way for another word.)

- (i) Thus we say "It is hard to climb that hill." Here it is the nominative to is.
- (ii) But what is it? It is a pronoun which stands for the noun to climb. The other form of the sentence would be "To climb that hill is hard." But this would be a clumsy form.
- (iii) The poet Pope says: "To err is human; to forgive divine." But this, in prose, would be: "It is human to err; it is divine to forgive."

Exercise 203. State (or write down) for what it stands in each of the following sentences: 1. It is not easy to tell. 2. It is pleasant, with a heart at ease, to make the shifting clouds be what you please. 3. It is plain that you have not heard the news. 4. It rains. 5. No! it hails. 6. Come and trip it as you go, on the light fantastic toe! 7. It is said that he has left the country. 8. It is necessary to make arrangements before he comes. 9. It is doubtful whether he will succeed. 10. Who was it that told you so? 11. It is an ancient mariner. 12. Twas autumn; and sunshine arose on the way.

Exercise 204. Work this Exercise like the preceding. 1. It is rumoured that the manager has fled. 2. It is necessary to provide yourself with a circular note of credit. 3. I cannot think it right to take that course. 4. The judge made it quite clear that the man was guilty. 5. It was moonlight at the time. 6. It is time that we were going. 7. It was then that the general gave the order to advance. 8. When was it that they arrived? 9. It is very doubtful whether he will come. 10. Who was it said so? 11. It is the porter that we want to help us. 12. It was you we saw.

RULE 6. The nominative can be omitted when the verb is in the Imperative Mood.

- (i) We say Come along! for "Come (thou) along!"
- (ii) We say Go on! for "Go (you) on!"

Exercise 205. Supply the NOMINATIVE to the verbs in the Imperative Mood: 1. Be good enough to come in! 2. Have done with your nonsense! 3. Begone! 4. Welcome! 5. Let go! 6. Fly for your lives! 7. Stop thief! 8. Stand at ease! 9. Unhand me, sir! 10. Dawn on our darkness and lend us thine aid! 11. See what a rent the envious Casca made! 12. Strew on her roses, roses, but never a spray of yew!

RULE 7. The possessive case is governed by the noun which is the name of the thing possessed.

- (i) We say John's gun, Tom's hat. Here gun, the name of the thing possessed, throws John into the possessive case.
- (ii) When two nouns are joined together, it is only the last that takes the 's-or sign of the possessive. Thus we say: "Smith and Norgate's shop."

Exercise 206. Put the following nouns into the POSSESSIVE CASE and supply a suitable noun to each: Man; men; birds; Moses; Simpkin and Marshall; ladies; son-in-law; England and France (as allies); the Duke of Wellington; Marshall and Snelgrove; William the Conqueror; King Alfred; Holden the publisher; Smith the grocer; an M.P.; his Highness.

II. SYNTAX OF THE ADJECTIVE.

RULE 8. The distributive adjectives each, every, either, and neither, cannot go with plural nouns or verbs.

We say "Each boy gets an apple." But we cannot say "Each boys" or "Each boy get."

Rule 9. The adjectives well, unwell, ill, alert, aware, afraid, glad, sorry, worth, etc., cannot go with nouns, but can only be used predicatively of them.

- (i) We can say "The gardener is well." But we cannot say "The well gardener."
- (ii) We can say "The workman was sorry to find," etc. But, if we say "A sorry workman"—then we mean something quite different.
- (iii) In the first instance, the adjective is said to be used predicatively; in the second instance, attributively.
 - (iv) The verbs become, seem, grow, etc., are looked on as of the same character as be.
- (v) In poetry we often find the adjective placed after the noun, even though it is used in the ordinary attributive sense:
 - (a) He smote the warder hoar.
 - (b) Gloucester, that duke so good.

Exercise 207. State where the adjectives in the following sentences are used predicatively, and where attributively:

1. We were all glad to hear the news. 2. Glad sight whenever new and old are joined through some dear home-born tie!

3. The rector is very unwell. 4. We were all sorry to find him out. 5. We were afraid to cross the field. 6. The girl is much worse to-day. 7. I met with a piece of ill-luck. 8. Worse fortune than befell him I cannot imagine. 9. We met a sorry hack on the road. 10. "A silly thought to say a sorry sight!" said Lady Macbeth. 11. Thou bring'st the hope of those calm skies, and the soft time of sunny showers. 12. These simple joys that never fail shall bind me to my native vale.

III. SYNTAX OF THE PRONOUN.

RULE 10. Pronouns must agree in gender, number, and person with the nouns for which they stand.

- (i) "Where is Jane? She is in the garden. Jane is feminine; and she is feminine.
- (ii) "Where are the boys? They are in the house," Boys is plural; and they is plural.

(iii) "The girl is here; she is looking for her mother." Girl is in the third person; and she is in the third person.

Exercise 208. Point out (or arrange in separate columns) the PRONOUNS in the following sentences, and the NOUNS they stand for: 1. Down in a green and shady bed a modest violet grew; its stalk was bent, it hung its head. 2. The father called his child. 3. Here Llewellyn hung his horn and spear. 4. In a crack near the cupboard, with dainties provided, a certain young mouse with her mother resided; so securely they lived, in that snug quiet spot, any mouse in the land might have envied their lot. 5. The field-mouse is gone to her nest. 6. O brave hearts that went down in the seas, ye are at peace in the troubled stream! 7. Not an eye the storm that viewed changed its proud glance of fortitude. 8. Neither the master nor his assistant taught his pupils writing.

RULE 11. Pronouns take their case from the sentences to which they belong.

- (i) "I have lost my book; it was left on the table." Here the noun book is in the objective case. But the personal pronoun it, which stands for book, is in the nominative case—the nominative to was left.
- (ii) "The boatman whom we met is ill." Here the noun boatman is in the nominative case to is ill. But the relative pronoun whom, which refers to boatman, is in the objective case, governed by the active-transitive verb met.
- (iii) Relative and Interrogative Pronouns have this peculiarity: they are governed by verbs that follow, and not by verbs that precede them. "Whom did you meet?" "The man whom I met,"
 - (iv) All this may be set forth thus:
 - (a) "The man who spoke to me was the lieutenant" (Nominative).
 - (b) "The man whom we saw was the mate ' (Objective).
 - (c) "The man whose hat was on was the captain" (Possessive).

Each of these three words, who, whose, and whom, belongs to a separate subordinate sentence of its own.

- (v) Dr. Latham gives the following examples to illustrate the fact that a pronoun—and especially a relative pronoun—takes its case from its own sentence:—
 - 1. John (who trusts me) comes here (NOM.).
 - 2. John (whom I trust) comes here (OBJ.).
 - 3. John (whose trust is in me) comes here (poss.).
 - 4. I trust John (who trusts me) obj. and NOM.

In the first three sentences, the noun John is always in the nominative case; while the relative goes through three different cases. In the last sentence John is in the objective, but the relative is in the nominative.

Exercise 209. Point out (or write out) the relative pronouns in the following sentences, and give their CASE, and also the CASE of the nouns they represent: 1. The book that the boy brought me is not mine. 2. You may gather garlands there (that) would grace a summer queen. 3. Mrs. Gilpin had two stone-bottles found to hold the liquor that she loved. 4. Then might all people well discern the bottle (that) he had slung. 5. He loved the bird that loved the man, who shot him with his bow. 6. Under the keel nine fathoms deep, from the land of mist and snow, the spirit slid; and it was he that made the ship to go. 7. The look with which they looked on me had never passed away. 8. The owlet whoops to the wolf below that eats the she-wolf's young.

RULE 12. After such, same, so much, so great, etc., we must not use the relative pronoun who—but as.

- (i) Milton says: "Tears such as angels weep."
- (ii) We can say: "This is not the same coffee as I had before."

Exercise 210. Point out the antecedents of as in the following sentences: 1. She wore just such a bonnet as you describe. 2. This is not the same volume as I had before. 3. The sale did not bring so much as I expected. 4. The author is not so great a man as he fancies himself. 5. I felt such a pain as I formerly had. 6. Bring such flowers as you have. 7. It is impossible to pardon such conduct as his. 8. Such as it is, I give you the dog. 9. I did not receive such a welcome as I formerly had. 10. Such an affection has sprung up between them as cannot fail to last. 11. His health is not such as it was. 12. Such a sight as we saw coming across the moor!

IV. SYNTAX OF THE VERB.

RULE 13. A Finite Verb must agree with its nominative in number and person.

We say "A Finite Verb," because a verb in the Infinitive Mood is never changed for number or person, and cannot be said to agree with any nominative.

- (i) "The men are here." Here men is plural; and are is plural.
- (ii) "She sings better than I sing." Here she is third person; and sings is third person. I is first person; and sing is first person.
- (iii) We could not say I sings, because I would be first person, and sings third person; and the two would not "agree."

Exercise 211. Give the NUMBER and PERSON of the verbs in the following sentences: 1. The ruddy apples dropped from the tree. 2. Tom and Harry have gone to the Exhibition. 3. His sword was in its sheath. 4. You should not go so near the edge of the cliff. 5. Cromwell, I charge thee, fling away ambition: 6. Nay, master, we are seven. 7. One touch of nature makes the whole world kin. 8. The Lives of the Poets was written by Dr. Johnson. 9. Has Mr. Smith called this morning? No! he has not been here. 10. She must weep, or she will die! 11. The House is still sitting. 12. Mr. Pecksniff, having received a knock on the head, lay placidly staring at his own door.

RULE 14. Two or more singular nominatives, connected by or or nor, require a verb in the singular.

- (i) "Either Tom or John is going." Here Tom and John are taken separately and singly; and therefore the verb must be singular.
- (ii) "There was neither sound nor sight to serve them for a guide." Here the sound and the sight are taken separately and singly; and therefore the verb was must be in the singular.

RULE 15. Two or more singular nominatives connected by and require a verb in the plural.

"Tom and John are going." Tom is one person; John is one person; one+one=two. But two singular persons=one plural; and therefore the verb are is in the plural.

Exercise 212. Give the NUMBER of the verbs in the following sentences; and state in each case why the verb is singular or is plural: 1. Soup and cold lamb will not make a bad dinner. 2. At one point in Baden the Danube and the Rhine are only twelve miles from each other. 3. John and I pulled the boat up on shore. 4. A wet sheet and a flowing sail are what I like. 5. Neither the gardener nor his boy had returned. 6. Time and tide wait for no man. 7. The lark and the nightingale are seldom heard together. 8. Neither the port nor the cliff is in sight. 9. The general and his army surrendered. 10. There was neither sound nor sight to serve them for a guide. 11. Bush, and tree, and sky were hidden in the mist. 12. My hat and wig will soon be here!

RULE 16. When a Collective Noun has the notion of unity uppermost, its verb is in the singular.

"The jury was discharged." "The army is on the march." "The crowd was easily dispersed." In all these nouns, jury, army, and crowd, the notion of unity is uppermost.

RULE 17. When a Collective Noun has the notion of plurality uppermost, its verb is in the plural.

- (i) "The people were unwilling to meet in council." "The flower of Scottish youth were slain at Flodden." In the first sentence, we think of the people as composed of a number of individuals, all of whom were unwilling. In the second, the flower=the choicest men.
 - (ii) We also say: "The jury were not agreed."
- (iii) "One half of mankind do not know how the other half live." "The people of England are jealous of their rights."

Exercise 213. State why, in each instance, the COLLECTIVE NOUNS in the following sentences have a singular or a plural verb: 1. The army is marching on Constantinople. 2. The public was not satisfied with the minister's statement. 3. The fleet is under orders to sail to the West Indies. 4. Our regiment was terribly cut up in the action. 5. The House of Commons were of very different opinions on the subject. 6. The jury were unable to agree. 7. The nation was thoroughly united and acted as one man. 8. The School Board meets only once a month. 9. Mine are the cattle upon a thousand hills. 10. Parliament was dissolved in July. 11. People say that he is not all he seems. 12. The meeting has elected its chairman.

Exercise 214. Work this Exercise like the preceding one.

1. The crew was commanded by Captain Millar. 2. The family was once a very happy one. 3. The whole nation is rising like one man. 4. The jury was a very intelligent jury. 5. The whole household were assembled. 6. The court were seated for judgment. 7. The government is in possession of all the facts of the case. 8. The English people declare they are grossly insulted. 9. England has a people who love the sea. 10. The cavalry was ordered up at full gallop. 11. Stonewall Jackson's army was composed of veteran soldiers. 12. The whole family were in tears. 13. The assembly were unable to agree. 14. The

crew, regardless of the women and children, were making for the boats. 15. The majority of the electors were in favour of their old member. 16. The regiment was ordered abroad.

Rule 18. An Active-transitive Verb governs the objective case.

- (i) "We met him." "We saw her." Here him and her are governed by met and saw.
- (ii) A participle is an adjective which retains the power of the verb from which it comes. Hence a participle, like its verb, can govern the objective case. "Seeing the rain, I went back." Here the participle Seeing (which goes with I) governs the noun rain in the objective case.
- (iii) A gerund is a noun which retains the power of the verb from which it comes. "Loving one's neighbour is enjoined by the gospel." Here Loving is a noun in the nominative case to the verb is enjoined. But it is also a gerund governing neighbour in the objective case.

Exercise 215. State (or write in separate columns) the OBJECTIVES in the following sentences, and the VERBS that govern them:

1. Mary called her sister. 2. The soldier threw his sword away. 3. The rector preached a long sermon. 4. Cast thy bread upon the waters; and thou shalt find it after many days.

5. The train passed the signal. 6. The courage and skill of the captain saved the ship. 7. The prince held out his arms to catch his sister. 8. You can see on the map two small islands in the west. 9. The children led a happy life in the country.

10. The shrill note of the lark woke him from his slumbers.

11. He was carving the goose when he spilled the gravy.

12. We buried him darkly at dead of night.

Exercise 216. Select (or write in separate columns) the OBJECTIVES in the following sentences, and the PARTICIPLES or GERUNDS that govern them: 1. Edward the Confessor made a will, appointing Duke William his successor. 2. Flogging a dead horse is useless. 3. They joined in desiring him to speak. 4. Meeting my friend, I turned back with him. 5. Forgetting my hat, I ran out of doors. 6. It is better using France, than trusting France. 7. We reached the town before ending our conversation. 8. It is useless his exerting himself so much. 9. The old father proposed accompanying his son. 10. Throwing down my bundle, I ran to the gate. 11. I carefully avoided seeing him. 12. Seeing the heavy clouds, I hurried back.

Rule 19. Active-Transitive verbs and prepositions govern the objective case.

- (i) "We met the man." Here the active-transitive verb met governs man in the objective case.
- (ii) "We walked with the man." Here the preposition with governs man in the objective case.

Exercise 217. Arrange in columns the OBJECTIVES in the following sentences, under the headings GOVERNED BY VERBS and GOVERNED BY PREPOSITIONS: 1. So he wove a subtle web in a little corner sly. 2. Lambs have play and pleasure, but not love like ours. 3. The brother with his fingers long makes figures on the whitened wall. 4. A gentle hand they hear low tapping at the bolted door. 5. Open your hospitable door and shield me from the biting blast. 6. The little children flocking came and chafed his frozen hands in theirs. 7. Close beside the fire they place the poor beggar-man. 8. Close by my cot she tells her tale to every passing villager.

Rule 20. Verbs of teaching, asking, making, appointing, etc., take two objects.

- (i) We can say "He teaches me," "He teaches grammar," and then "He teaches me grammar." In all these sentences me and grammar are in the objective case.
- (ii) "They made him their leader." In this sentence made has two objectives; and such verbs are called factitive verbs.
- (iii) "I am taught grammar." Here the active verb teach has been turned into the passive verb am taught. But one of the objects is retained even after a passive verb; and this object is called the retained object.
- (iv) Caution! But, in the sentence "He was made their leader," the noun leader is not a retained object, it is the nominative after was made—which is a verb like become, seem, etc. etc.

Exercise 218. Point out the Two objects after the verbs of teaching, etc., in the following sentences: 1. The archbishop crowned Duke William king. 2. My mother taught us French. 3. The judge asked the prisoner only one question. 4. His parents called the child Richard. 5. Many Normans thought Prince Arthur the rightful king. 6. The Directors appointed him inspector. 7. We do not think Dr. S. clever. 8. Many

deemed the man an impostor. 9. The French proclaimed Louis king. 10. The regiment took six hundred men prisoners.

Exercise 219. Turn the verbs in the above into the PASSIVE VOICE, and keep one of the two objects as a RETAINED OBJECT.

RULE 21. An Intransitive Verb can take an object, if the object be of the same meaning as the verb itself.

- (i) We can say: To die the death; to dream a dream; to run a race.
- (ii) Such an objective is sometimes called a cognate objective.

Exercise 220. Arrange in three columns the objective cases in the following sentences, under the headings, double objectives, retained objectives, and cognate objectives: 1. He has fought a good fight. 2. They made him president. 3. He lived a thoughtless life. 4. I was shown the place where he fell. 5. The boys ran a race. 6. The porter was paid sixpence. 7. The master taught the boys Latin. 8. The whole meeting shouted applause. 9. The girls danced a country dance. 10. He laughed a laugh of merry scorn. 11. The Scots called James VII. king. 12. The soldiers took the General prisoner.

RULE 22. Verbs of giving, promising, telling, showing, etc., take two objects—an indirect object and a direct object.

- (i) Thus we say: (a) He gave her a fan; (b) My uncle promised me a shilling;
- (c) They showed him the picture. Here her, me, and him are all indirect objects.
 - (ii) The indirect object is in the dative case.
- (iii) When a verb is turned from the active into the passive voice, either the Direct Object or the Indirect Object may be turned into the Subject.

Direct Object used as Subject.

- (a) A fan was given her.
- (b) A shilling was promised me.
- (c) The picture was shown him.

Indirect Object used as Subject.

- (a) She was given a fan.
- (b) I was promised a shilling.
- (c) He was shown the picture.

Exercise 221. State (or write down) which are the DIRECT OBJECTS and which the INDIRECT OBJECTS in the following sentences: 1. The servant handed the lady a chair. 2. Build me a cottage in the vale. 3. Send us a basket of strawberries. 4. His uncle left Robert all his fortune. 5. The porter refused him admittance. 6. The king offered his friend a peerage.

7. The statement did my partner a cruel wrong. 8. The appearance of the river promised the angler a good day's sport. 9. I did not deny him the favour. 10. The book cost me three shillings. 11. The general granted him leave. 12. The watchman showed us the castle.

Exercise 222. Turn all the verbs in the above sentences into the PASSIVE VOICE making the DIRECT OBJECTS subjects.

Exercise 223. Turn all the verbs in the above sentence into the PASSIVE VOICE making the INDIRECT OBJECTS subjects.

'RULE 23. Active-transitive Verbs of giving, promising, showing, and such like, govern the direct object in the objective case, and the indirect object in the dative case.

- (i) "I gave him an apple." Here apple is the direct object, and is in the objective case. Him is the indirect object, and is in the dative case.
 - (ii) If we say "An apple was given him," him is still in the dative case.
- (iii) If we say "He was given an apple," then apple is still in the objective case, and is called a retained object.

Exercise 224. Point out (or write in separate columns) the DIRECT OBJECTS and the INDIRECT OBJECTS in the following sentences: 1. The parrot replied, "Give the knave a groat!"

2. I sent her a basket of strawberries. 3. My father bought me this knife. 4. Fetch the lady a chair. 5. He kindly saved them all trouble. 6. His father promised John a sailing boat.

7. The picture-dealer showed me over his gallery. 8. "Tell us a story!" said the children. 9. I handed the wood-cutter his axe. 10. "Heaven send the prince a better companion!"

11. "Heaven send the companion a better prince!" 12. "They laid him down upon the floor, to work him further woe."

13. Her uncle left her all his fortune.

RULE 24. The Infinitive Mood is the subject or the object of another verb.

- (i) "He is learning to swim." "He hates to walk." Here the verbs is learning and hates throw the verbs swim and walk into the infinitive mood, or they may be regarded quite simply as the objects of the transitive verbs.
- (ii) The infinitive is often the subject of the verb: "To ride in the morning is very healthy."
 - (iii) The Infinitive in such cases is a noun.

Exercise 225. In the following sentences state whether the Infinitives are the SUBJECT or the OBJECT of the verb they go with: 1. The master promised to give us a holiday. 2. To laugh were want of decency and grace, but to be grave exceeds all power of face. 3. The general resolved to besiege the city. 4. To obey is better than sacrifice. 5. The mother hoped long to see the face of her son once more. 6. The sorrowing sister refused to play with her brother's friend. 7. He tried hard to learn Chinese. 8. The captain ordered the soldier to carry the letter. 9. John wishes to see the Exhibition. 10. The surgeon tried to stop the bleeding. 11. It is hard to climb that hill. 12. The man was forced to serve in the navy.

Rule 25. The Infinitive Mood is sometimes dependent on Nouns and Adjectives.

(i) "The desire to learn helped him on." Here the infinitive to learn is connected with the noun desire. In the same way we say: The wish to go; a way to make you; time to go to bed; anxiety to show.

(ii) "He is eager to learn." Here the infinitive to learn is connected with the adjective eager.

Exercise 226. Select the verbs in the INFINITIVE MOOD, and say whether they are governed by other verbs, or are dependent on nouns or on adjectives: 1. The little boy has learnt to read. 2. Ability to speak French is a necessary qualification. 3. They were quite ready to stone me. 4. The boy is ripe to look on war. 5. I intend to call on him. 6. Mine eyes are hungry to behold her face 7. He forgot, as we are all prone to do, the facts against him. 8. He had the presumption to resist me to my face. 9. These caitiff nobles had neither the courage to be great, nor the wisdom to be honest. 10. He showed reluctance to obey the summons. 11: The little lad was eager to go with us. 12. The other boys refused to stir.

Rule 26. The Simple Infinitive (without the sign to) is used with auxiliary verbs, such as may, do, shall, will, can, must, etc.; and also with let, bid, see, hear, make, feel, observe, and others of the same character.

⁽i) I let him do it. I bade him come. I saw her go.

- (ii) It is also usual to say: "Better stay (=to stay) here than lose your way."
- (iii) In poetry, too, we find: "Better dwell in the midst of alarms, than reign in this horrible place!"

Exercise 227. Point out (or write down) the infinitives that have no to before them, and state what verbs govern them: 1. He bade the captain look to it. 2. Did you not hear me speak?

3. Your deeds would make the statues of your ancestors blush.

4. Sometimes I saw you sit and spin. 5. She marked his banner boldly fly. 6. In other hands I have known money do good.

7. Some, sunk to beasts, find pleasure end in pain. 8. The bleak wind of March made her tremble and shiver. 9. We perceived him shrink when she spoke. 10. I observed tears come into her eyes. 11. Montague discerned something stir behind the hangings.

12. His eyes will ne'er behold another day break in the East.

Rule 27. The gerund is both a noun and a verb. As a noun, it may be in the nominative or in the objective case. As a verb, it governs nouns or pronouns.

- (i) "Cracking nuts injures the teeth. Here cracking is a gerund, and, as a verb, governs the noun *nuts*. But, as a noun, it is the subject of the verb *injures*, and is in the nominative case.
- (ii) "He dislikes playing football." Here the gerund playing is a verb which governs football in the objective case; but it is also a noun, and is itself in the objective case, governed by the verb dislikes.
- (iii) A gerund, which is a verbal noun, and a present participle, which is a verbal adjective, both alike have the power of governing the same cases as their verbs. "He is tired of fighting the enemy" (gerund). "The girls are teasing Mary" (participle).

Exercise 228. Point out (or write down) the GERUNDS in the following sentences; state whether they are nominatives or objectives, and what words they govern: 1. I distinctly remember meeting him in Fleet Street. 2. Disbanded legions freely might depart; and slaying men would cease to be an art. 3. He declined throwing away words on the subject. 4. He did not mind taking liberties with the law. 5. I recollect throwing down my fishing-rod on the bank. 6. I have not the pleasure of knowing the gentleman. 7. Catching salmon is an intensely interesting pursuit. 8. The King congratulated the general on

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gaining so complete a victory. 9. She spent too much time in reading novels. 10. The old miser always hated spending money. 11. The master grew tired of teaching boys so dull. 12. After hearing the result of the Barrow election I came away.

Exercise 229. Work this Exercise like the preceding one.

1. Harry is fond of studying mathematics. 2. Such a course runs the risk of setting fire to the sails. 3. Tom Brown was excused fagging for the rest of the term. 4. Mr. Wilson is a person well used to making sacrifices. 5. Fortune seems bent on favouring us. 6. There can be little doubt of the tree's having reached its maturity. 7. An act was passed for preventing obstruction in Parliament. 8. After having been writing all the morning, my hand feels tired. 9. Of making many books there is no end. 10. The angler was tired of flogging the water.

11. He piques himself on his skill in driving a ball. 12. I congratulate you on having defeated your enemy.

RULE 28. The Subjunctive Mood is always dependent on another clause in the sentence.

- (a) The word Subjunctive means subjoined or dependent. The clause in which the Subjunctive occurs is dependent on the principal clause in the sentence.
- (b) The subjunctive mood is generally introduced by a conjunction—such as: If, though, unless, etc.
- (i) "If you go, I will venture." Here the verb go in the first clause is in the subjunctive mood; and the first clause is dependent on the second.
- (ii) Sometimes the conjunction is omitted. Thus we say "Had I known it, I would not have called." Here Had I is=If I had; and the verb had is in the subjunctive.
- (iii) The use of the subjunctive mood is going out of fashion. Jane Austen, a writer in the early part of this century, employed it with such conjunctions as Ere, until, whether, etc. But we no longer say "If he be willing," but simply "If he is willing."

Exercise 230. Point out (or write down) the verbs in the SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD in the following sentences, and state upon what clause each is dependent: 1. If he is content I am. 2. See that a guard be ready at my call. 3. I will not say whether this be so or not. 4. I will not go, unless he come also. 5. And if indeed I cast the brand away, surely a precious thing will then be lost. 6. Foul deeds will rise, though all the earth o'erwhelm them, to men's eyes. 7. Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him. 8. I wish it were better weather. 9. Had she lived a

a twelvementh more, she had not died to-day. 10. Leisure cannot be enjoyed unless it be won by labour.

Exercise 231. Work this Exercise like the preceding.

1. It is better that he die than that justice depart out of the world.

2. It is the king's pleasure that the queen appear in person before the Court.

3. It is time that I were gone.

4. Go! bid thy mistress, when my drink is ready, she strike upon the bell.

5. I pray thee, Cardinal, that thou assert my innocence.

6. See that a guard be ready at my call.

7. I wish it were in my power to be of any service to him.

8. Will your majesty give Richard leave to live till Richard die?

9. Blow till thou burst thy wind!

10. You must beware lest his blundering destroy your hopes of success.

11. Here let us rest, if this rebellious earth have any resting for her true king's queen.

12. If solitude succeed to grief, release from pain is slight relief.

V. SYNTAX OF THE ADVERB, PREPOSITION, AND CONJUNCTION.

Rule 29. Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

- (i) "He writes well." Here the adverb well modifies the verb writes.
- (ii) "John is very ill." Here the adverb very modifies the adjective ill.
- (iii) "Tom ran very fast." Here the adverb very modifies the adverb fast.
- (iv) Nouns or noun-phrases may be used as adverbs. Thus we can say: "He was bound hand and foot." "I don't care a button." "Wait a bit!" Here the noun-phrases "hand and foot," "a button," and "a bit" modify the verbs bound, care, and wait.
- (v) Caution. The word button is not the object of the verb care, but the measure of the caring.

Exercise 232. Point out (or write in columns) the adverses in the following sentences; and state whether they modify verses, adjectives, or other adverses: 1. He heard again the language of his native land. 2. The siege was pressed more closely. 3. We rose very early. 4. He left almost immediately. 5. These rich people never knew adversity. 6. Charles early showed a very strong liking for music. 7. He too scornfully thrust aside

our apologies. 8. He is old enough to know better. 9. Tread softly and speak low, for the old year lies a-dying. 10. Take her up very tenderly. 11. The master spoke extremely loud. 12. The fire burned away too fast.

RULE 30. Adverbs sometimes modify prepositional phrases.

(i) "He ran up to me." Here the adverb up does not modify the verb ran, but the prepositional phrase to me.

(ii) "He ran down to the river." Here the adverb down modifies the prepositional phrase to the river.

Exercise 233. Point out the ADVERES in the following sentences, and state what prepositional phrases they modify:

1. We traced the fox up to his hole.

2. The cup was full nearly to the brim.

3. He drained the bitter cup nearly to the dregs.

4. Their height was the same almost to an inch.

5. The people rose, almost to a man, against so wicked a law.

6. They argued quite from the point.

7. The robber was stabbed almost quite through the heart.

8. There remained no green thing almost throughout the land of Egypt.

9. The boom was stretched quite across the stream.

10. He meets me every day almost at the same time.

11. The body lay entirely in the river.

12. Always in sleep I hear the mournful sound.

RULE 31. The adverb should always stand as close as possible to the word it modifies.

We ought to say "He gave me only three shillings," because the adverb only modifies the adjective three. We ought not to say "He only gave," etc.

Rule 32. Prepositions govern the objective case.

"He came with me." Here me is in the objective, governed by with.

Exercise 234. Point out (or write down) the OBJECTIVES in the following sentences, and the PREPOSITIONS that govern them:

1. We buried him darkly at dead of night.

2. That trot became a gallop soon in spite of curb and rein.

3. He grasped the mane with both his hands.

4. From far 1 the lowings come of cattle driven home.

5. The gnats whirl in the air.

6. Our ship made little way against the wind.

7. He returned from wandering 2 on a foreign strand.

8. Here lies poor Tom Bowling, the

I Far here must be regarded as a noun, because it is used as a noun.

² Wandering is a verbal noun.

darling of our crew. 9. Mirth is turned to melancholy. 10. The horned moon rose with one bright star within the nether tip. 11. The look with which they looked on me had never passed away. 12. The tempest gathered o'er her.

Exercise 235. In the following sentences and phrases state whether the word in italics is an advers or a preposition. If the former, mention the vers it goes with; if the latter, the noun it joins: 1. The book is lying on the table. 2. Thus spake on that ancient man. 3. The room went round with me. 4. We all ran round the ring. 5. The swing went up and down famously. 6. We walked together up and down the street. 7. Sir John jumped immediately off his horse. 8. The jockey was thrown off just at the beginning of the race. 9. The children were playing in the field. 10. The man said: "I have just looked in for two minutes." 11. Do not walk on the flowerbeds. 12. Walk on! I will join you in a minute.

RULE 33. Certain verbs, nouns, and adjectives require special prepositions.

(i) Many persons say "This is quite different to that." But they would not say "This differs to that." They would say "This differs from that." If the verb differs takes from, the adjective different must also take from.

(ii) The following is a list of the chief of these special and appropriate prepositions:

Accord with
Acquit of
Adapted to (by intention)
Adapted for (by nature)
Agree with (a person)
Agree to (a proposal)
Alienate from
Antipathy to
Assent to

Assent to Avert from Bestow upon

Absolve from

Blush at (the mention of a thing) Blush for (an act)

Boast of Capable of Change for (a thing) Change with (a person) Comply with
Confer on (=give to)
Confer with (=talk with)
Confide in (=trust in)
Confide to (=intrust to)

Convenient to (a person)
Convenient for (a purpose)

Correspond with (=write letters)

Correspond to (a thing)
Deficient in

Conversant with

Dependent on (but independent of!)
Devolve upon

Differ from (a statement)
Differ with (a person)
Different from

Disappointed of (what we cannot get)
Disappointed in (what we have got)

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Disappointed with (a thing)

Dissent from

Distinguished from (another thing)

Distinguished by (a mark)

Eager for Enamoured of

Endeared to

Exception from (a rule) Exception to (a statement)

Exclusive of

Expert at (his work)

Expert in (his profession)

Foreign to

Glad of (a possession)

Glad at (a piece of news)

Grieve at

Guilty of

Indifferent to Inseparable from

Inured to

Involved in

Martyr for (a cause)

Martyr to (a disease)

Need of or for

Overwhelmed with (shame) Overwhelmed by (kindness)

Part from (a person) Part with (a thing)

Profit by

Provide for (a person)

Provide with (food, etc.)

Provide against (disaster)

Reconcile to (a person)

Reconcile with (a statement)

Significant of Taste of (food)

Taste for (art) Thirst for or after (knowledge)

Triumph over

Wait on (= visit)

Wait for (= spend time waiting)

Warn of or against

Exercise 236. Place suitable PREPOSITIONS after the following words: 1. Adapt. 2. Agree. 3. Assent. 4. Bestow. 5. Boast. 6. Distinguish. 7. Exception. 8. Expert. 9. Foreign. 10. Charge. 11. Confer. 12. Correspond.

Exercise 237. Add suitable PREPOSITIONS to the following: Differ. 2. Glad. 3. Inseparable. 4. Overwhelmed. 5. Part. 6. Provide. 7. Reconcile. 8. Taste. 9. Triumph. 10. Wait. 11. Warn.

RULE 34. Conjunctions are words which join verbs or They do not interfere with the action of a sentences. transitive verb or a preposition.

- (i) "We saw her and them." Here the conjunction and does not interfere with the action of the verb saw. Saw governs them as well as her.
- (ii) "He will not go with either you or me." Here the preposition with governs the pronouns you and me in spite of the conjunctions either and or coming between.

Exercise 238. Select the Conjunctions in the following sentences, and state what verbs they join: 1. He came in the afternoon and dined with us. 2. Some wept, and all kept silence.

3. I do not know whether he is arrived or not. 4. I often miss, but he never does. 5. He felt sorry that he had spoken. 6. He waited till we came out of the hall. 7. So I told them in rhyme, for of rhymes I had store. 8. The cataract plunges along as if it were waging war with the rocks. 9. My days and nights were never weary, though many called my life forlorn. 10. All bloodless lay the untrodden snow, and dark as winter was the flow of Iser. 11. The crow doth sing as sweetly as the lark (—), when neither is attended. 12. We shall not skate if the ice is thin.

Rule 35. Certain adjectives and conjunctions require special conjunctions.

The following is a list of the most important:

Both (adj.) requires	and	Such (adj.)	requires	2.5
Either ,,	or	As	"	8.5
Neither ,,	nor	So	,,	2.5
Nor ,, 1	nor	Since	,,	therefore
Or ,,	or	Though	,,	yet
Rather 1	than	Whether		or

Rule 36. The subordinating conjunction that is often omitted.

- (i) "Are you sure he is come?" Here that understood joins two sentences.
- (ii) "Brutus says he was ambitious." That is also understood in this statement.



BAD GRAMMAR CORRECTED, WITH REASONS.

- 1. No one seemed to act as if they were friendly.

 No one is singular; the pronoun which stands for it ought also to be singular.
- · 2. Homer, as well as Virgil, were studied on the banks of the Rhine.

Alter the position of the clauses and say: "Homer was studied . . . as well as Virgil,"

3. Nothing but grave and serious studies delight him.

The nominative to the verb is Nothing. Nothing is singular; therefore the verb ought to be singular.

4. It is better for you and I as it is.

For is a preposition, which governs the objective case; and I ought therefore to be me.

5. Without you agree, nothing can be done.

Without is here used as a conjunction,—an old-fashioned usage. The best writers now employ it only as a preposition.

6. Whom do you think was there?

Alter the order into: Whom was there, do you think? Here we see that the subject of was is whom, which ought to be who in the nominative case.

7. He offered a large sum to whomsoever would assist him.

This sentence looks all right; because schomsover seems to be governed in the objective case by the preposition to. But the verb would assist wants a nominative; and the only nominative it can have is whosever. What, then, does to govern? It manifestly governs the words any person (understood).

8. Men are put in the plural number, because they mean many.

This also looks right; because the plural nominative men requires a plural verb are. But the true nominative is the word Men; and hence the sentence ought to run: "Men is put, 'etc.

9. Dr. Johnson's Lives of the Poets are an interesting book.

The sentence ought to run: "Lives is,' etc.; because Johnson's Lives is one book, no matter how many Lives it may contain.

10. Do it like I do!

Here like is used as a conjunction. But good writers and speakers always employ it as an adjective.

11. I was told it was him.

It should be was he. The nominative to was is if; the verb to be has the same case after it as before it; if is in the nominative; therefore him should be in the nominative also—that is, should be he.

12. We sorrow not as them that have no hope.

It should be as they. 1. As is not a preposition, which governs the objective. 2. The verb sorrow is understood; and the full construction is "We sorrow not as they sorrow."

13. I have met your friend, he that is the sailor.

Friend is in the objective case; he is in apposition with friend; therefore he ought to be him.

14. He was angry at me quitting the house.

Quitting is here a gerund, because it governs the noun house. But a gerund is a noun; therefore me ought to be my.

15. The King with the Lords and Commons form the Legislature.

This ought either to be the King and, or the King, with . . . forms. With is never a conjunction, but always a preposition.

16. A versifier and poet are two different things.

A versifier and poet means one and the same person. It ought to be A versifier and a poet.

17. The book will be read by the high and low.

This reads as if the same set of persons were both "high and low"—which is impossible. Two different sets of persons are meant; and the phrase ought to be "The high and the low."

18. Cromwell assumed the title of a Protector.

This reads as if Cromwell had taken the title of some one else. It ought to be of Protector.

19. A great and a good man aims at higher things,

Put so, the sentence speaks of two men—one great and one good. But it is plain that only one man is meant; and it ought to be "A great and good man."

20. She fell a-laughing like one out of their right mind.

One is singular; the pronoun referring to it ought to be singular; therefore their ought to be her.

21. There are five compartments: put it in either of them! *Either=one of two. It cannot mean one of five. It ought to be any or any one.

22. This opinion is held by one of the greatest philosophers that has ever existed.

The antecedent to that is philosophers. But philosophers is plural; that is therefore also plural: and has ought also to be plural.

23. Those sort of books are useless.

Sort is singular; the adjective those ought to be singular; and the verb are ought also to be singular. The sentence ought to run; That sort of books is useless,

24. The quotation is to be found on the second or third page.

This means that there is only one page spoken of, which page is second or third. This is impossible. It ought to be: the second or the third.

25. Our climate is not so sunny as those of France or Italy.

This sentence may be corrected in two ways: "Those of France and Italy." Or "that of France or of Italy. In the latter case each climate is taken by itself.

26. In France the peasantry goes barefoot.

In the collective noun peasantry the idea of plurality is uppermost. From the point of view of wearing shoes, we cannot think of the French peasantry as one united body.

27. His family are large.

In the collective noun family the idea of unity is uppermost : and are ought to be is.

28. The fleet have sailed.

The collective noun fleet indicates a united body, with a single head; have ought therefore to be has.

29. Art thou the man that comest from Egypt?

The antecedent to that is man. But man, being a noun, is in the third person. Therefore that is in the third person; and comest ought also to be in the third person.

30. They who have the courage always to speak the truth choose for thy friends.

The active verb choose governs the objective case. They ought therefore to be them. This would be at once seen if we altered the order and said: "Choose them for thy friends, etc.

31. Thou, Nature, partial Nature, I arraign!

The object of arraign is Thou, which ought, therefore, to be Thee.

32. Not enjoyment and not sorrow are our destined end or way.

Here the two nominatives enjoyment and sorrow are taken and thought of separately. "Enjoyment is not our end." "Sorrow is not our end." Hence are ought to be is.

33. I had intended to have gone to London.

When you were intending, the going was present to your mind, and future as regards your action. Hence it could not possibly have been past. Hence to have gone should be to go.

34. He is a stronger man than me.

Than is really a conjunction joining the two sentences: "He is a stronger man than I am."

Hence me ought to be I.

35. That is the best of the two.

The superlative degree is used when three things are compared; the comparative when only two. Hence best ought to be better,

36. Let each esteem others better than themselves.

Euch is a word in the singular number. The reflexive pronoun that refers to it ought also to be singular, and themselves ought therefore to be himself.

37. Neither precept nor discipline are so forcible as example.

Here the two nominatives precept and discipline are thought of separately and are each separately compared with example Hence the verb are ought to be is.

38. And many a holy text around she strews,

That teach the rustic moralist to die.

Text is singular; the relative pronoun that is therefore singular; and hence the verb teach ought to be singular.

39. What art thou, speak, that on designs unknown, While others sleep, thus range the camp alone?

Thou is the second person; that is therefore in the second person; and hence the verb range ought to be in the second person.

40. Sense, and not riches, win esteem.

It ought to be wins. The nominative to the verb is sense; and riches is expressly excluded.

41. We can easier walk than ride.

Easier ought to be more easily. The word that modifies a verb must be an adverb, not an adjective.

42. I knew it to be he.

It ought to be: to be him. The word it is in the objective case, governed by knew; the verb to be has the same case after it as before it; hence he should be him.

43. They all slept sound save she who loved them both.

She ought to be her. Save (like except) is a preposition governing the objective case. (As a matter of fact, both save and except are verbs in the imperative mood—but used as prepositions.)

44. They are the two first boys in the class.

There cannot be two first. It ought to be first two—that is, the two boys who are highest in the class.

45. Nor want nor cold his course delay.

In this sentence scant is thought of and spoken of separately; so is cold. Hence the verb ought to be singular.

46. This offence I shall neither attempt to palliate nor deny.

The word neither should come before to palliate; as the neither and the nor connect the palliate and the dony.

47. Hoping soon to see you, believe me yours truly.

Hoping is an adjective. With what noun or pronoun does it go? It must go with the pronoun you understood after believe. The sentence is therefore="Believe you, hoping," etc. But the person who hopes is the writer of the letter. The sentence ought therefore to be, "Hoping to see you, I am, etc.

48. Failing in this attempt, no second attack was made.

Failing is an adjective. With what noun does it agree? The only noun it can agree with is the noun attack. But this would make nonsense. The sentence ought to be: "Failing in this attempt, they made no second attack."

49. I never have and never will believe it.

It ought to be: "I never have believed, etc. We cannot say have believe.

50. The sons of false Antimachus were slain;
He who for bribes his faithless counsels sold.

He is in apposition with Antimachus. But Antimachus is in the objective case, governed by the preposition of. Therefore He ought to be Him.

51. Everybody trembled for themselves or their friends.

Everybody is singular. Therefore the pronoun that stands for it ought to be singular. The sentence ought to run thus: "for himself or for his friends,"

52. This is one of the best books that has ever been published.

The antecedent to that is books. But books is plural; therefore that is also plural; and therefore the verb ought also to be plural.

53. Nothing but scientific studies delight him.

The nominative to the verb delight is nothing—a noun which is singular. Hence delight ought to be delights.

54. The ends of a divine and human legislator are vastly different.

There are two legislators. Hence the sentence ought to run: "A divine and a human."

The knife was laying on the table.

It ought to be lying. Lay is the transitive (or causative) form of lie; it is=make to lie. In the same way, we have set and sit; fell and fall, etc.

56. The cavalry wears helmets.

It ought to be wear; because the idea of plurality is uppermost in the word cavalry, when we think of all of them wearing helmets.

57. Any one may have this: I care not whom.

The full construction is: "I care not who (has it)." Hence whom ought to be who.

58. Every thought and feeling are opposed to it.

"Every thought and every feeling are each taken singly; and therefore the verb ought to be singular.

THE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

Lesson 1.—The Kinds of Sentences.

- . 1. All words go in sets or groups.
- 2. When a group of words makes complete sense, it is called a sentence.
- 3. If the sense is not complete, it is called a clause or a phrase.
 - (i) Thus "Wherever he went" does not make complete sense, and is called a clause.
 - (ii) "In the river" does not make complete sense, and is called a phrase.
 - 4. A sentence is a complete statement.
- (i) "The horse gallops." "Fishes swim." These are complete statements. Therefore they are sentences.
- (ii) "With a gun." "In the house." These are groups of words; but they are not statements, because they contain no verb. They are called phrases.
- (iii) "Wherever I went." "If you come." These are statements. They contain verbs; but they are not complete. They are therefore not sentences.
- 5. There are three kinds of sentences: Simple, Compound, and Complex.
 - (i) A simple sentence consists of one complete statement : "The boy runs."
- (ii) A compound sentence of two or more complete statements, all of equal rank. "John was fishing; Mary was sitting on the bank; and Tom was gathering flowers.' Here there are three complete statements. But they are all of equal rank or importance; and hence the sentence is a compound sentence.
- (iii) A complex sentence contains one chief sentence, and one or more sentences that are of subordinate rank. "This is the book that you asked for." Here the principal sentence is "This is the book." The clause "that you asked for," is a subordinate

sentence which has attached itself to book. This sentence, then, contains a principal and a subordinate sentence: it is therefore a complex sentence.

Exercise 239. State which of the following are SENTENCES, which clauses, and which mere phrases: 1. Tom ran quickly to the station. 2. The boy whom we met. 3. For so much money. 4. Close to the lake. 5. We met at the church door. 6. In the market-place of the town. 7. Every turf beneath their feet. 8. Whenever I meet him. 9. War has been proclaimed. 10. Swiftly, swiftly blew the breeze. 11. The spirit that plagued us so. 12. Under the table.

Lesson 2.—The Simple Sentence. 1.

- 1. A Simple Sentence consists of one subject and one predicate.
- (i) The Subject is the thing (or person) we speak about. What we speak about, we must name. We must therefore use a name or a noun. Hence the Subject is always a noun.
- (ii) The Predicate is what we say about the subject. To say anything, we must use a saying-word or telling-word or verb. Therefore the predicate is always a verb.
 - 2. The Subject is the person or thing we speak about.
 - (i) "The man snores." About what do we here speak? The man.
 - (ii) "The lion roars." What do we speak about here? The Hon.
 - (iii) "The trumpet sounds." Here we speak about the trumpet.
 - (iv) "The ball rebounds." Here the subject is the ball.
 - 3. The Predicate is what we say about the subject.
 - (i) "The cannons roar." What do we say about the cannons? That they roar.
 - (ii) "The ploughboys snore." What is said about the ploughboys? That they snore,
 - (iii) "The lark sings." Here sings tells about the lark.
 - (iv) "The bell rings." Here rings is the predicate.
 - 4. There are six kinds of subjects in a simple sentence:
 - (i) A noun, as in "The fair breeze blew."
 - (ii) A pronoun, as in "It is I."
 - (iii) A verbal noun, as in "Walking is healthy."

- (iv) A gerund, as in "Reading too many books is unprofitable.
- (v) An infinitive, as in "To swim is not difficult."
- (vi) An adjective with a noun understood, as in "The blind (persons) receive their sight."
- 5. The subject is either a noun, or some word or words equivalent to a noun.

Exercise 240. Point out (or arrange in two columns) the SUBJECTS and PREDICATES in the following: 1. The horses galloped all over the field. 2. The dogs disturbed us with their incessant barking. 3. The deserter was shot. 4. Charles I. lost his head. 5. The people love their king. 6. Richard III. murdered his nephews. 7. The elephant dragged the gun from the morass. 8. Columbus discovered America. 9. Nelson won the battle of the Nile. 10. The blackbird began his merry lay. 11. The drums beat at dead of night. 12. Robinson Crusoe built himself a house.

Exercise 241. Supply suitable PREDICATES to the following subjects: 1. The trout. 2. The elephant. 3. The ship. 4. The tiger. 5. Ink. 6. The gunpowder. 7. The snow. 8. The Thames. 9. The reaper. 10. The wind. 11. The Queen. 12. The regiment.

Exercise 242. Supply suitable SUBJECTS to the following predicates: 1. Barks. 2. Roar. 3. Neighs. 4. Was punished. 5. Was rewarded. 6. Sang. 7. Has succeeded. 8. Is sorry. 9. Shone. 10. Shouted. 11. Rang. 12. Departed.

Exercise 243. Arrange the subjects in the following sentences in six columns, thus:

NOUNS | PRONOUNS | VERBAL NOUNS | GERUNDS | INFINITIVES | ADJECTIVES

1. Swimming is a very healthy exercise. 2. The captain led his company into action. 3. The skipper had taken with him his little daughter. 4. The idle will certainly receive their reward. 5. We saw them bathing. 6. To err is human; to forgive divine. 7. Lying is a hateful vice. 8. Lifting heavy weights tires the arms. 9. Many are called; few are chosen. 10. How are the mighty fallen! 11. The good are sometimes unhappy. 12. Travelling in the desert is unsafe.

Lesson 3.—The Simple Sentence. II.

- 1. There are five kinds of predicates:
- (i) A verb, as in "God is." "Rivers flow."
- (ii) The verb to be + a noun, as in "John is a carpenter."
- (iii) The verb to be + an adjective, as in "John is ill."
- (iv) The verb to be + an adverb, as in "The man is here."
- (v) The verb to be + a phrase, as in "They are in great poverty.
- 2. The predicate is either a **verb** or some words equivalent to a **verb**.
- 3. When the predicate contains an active-transitive verb, that verb requires after it an object, to make complete sense.
- 4. Such an object is called a completion, because it enables us to complete the sense.
- 5. As there are six kinds of subjects, so there are six kinds of objects or completions. These are:
 - (i) A noun, as in "The cow gives milk."
 - (ii) A pronoun, as in "We could not find him."
 - (iii) A verbal noun, as in "We dislike fishing."
 - (iv) A gerund, as in "The gamekeeper declines setting traps."
 - (v) An infinitive, as in "We like to sit here."
 - (vi) An adjective with a noun understood, as in "The blind lead the blind."
- 6. Verbs of giving, promising, offering, handing, take an indirect object in addition to the direct object.
- (i) "The sight of him gave us great pleasure." Here us is the indirect, and pleasure the direct object.
- (ii) The indirect object may be changed into a prepositional phrase. "I gave the man a shilling" may be altered into "I gave a shilling to the man." But to the man is still the indirect object.

Exercise 244. Arrange in five columns the different kinds of predicates in the following:

verbs | to be+noun | to be+adjective | to be+adverb | to be+phrase

The lions roar.
 The boys played all the afternoon.
 Harry is a farmer.
 The ladder was very long.
 The messenger is here.
 The deserter is still at large.
 The wind is very boisterous.
 Napoleon was a great general.
 Sir Robert Peel was a great statesman.
 Lead is a soft metal.
 The lad is of incurably lazy habits.
 The family is in great poverty.

Exercise 245. Place in two columns the direct objects and the indirect objects in the following sentences: 1. The lad never gave his parents a moment's anxiety. 2. He handed the lady a cup of coffee. 3. The doctor brought him a bandage. 4. The traveller threw him his purse. 5. His father left Tom a very pretty fortune. 6. Nobody will now keep him company. 7. He procured the fat rogue a fat office. 8. I got her an operabox. 9. He wrought the castle much annoy. 10. He never did us any good. 11. He bought his little girl a nice pony. 12. God grant him a safe voyage! 13. Send me your photograph, please. 14. The saddler made me a leather muzzle.

Lesson 4.—Enlargements.

- 1. An adjective or adjectival phrase added to the subject or to the object is called an enlargement.
- (i) We can say "The traveller paused." We can also say "The poor old traveller, sick and weary, paused (at the gate)." Here the adjectives poor old before the subject and the adjectives sick and weary after it, are all enlargements of the subject traveller.
 - (ii) A subject may have a very large number of enlargements.
 - 2. There are six kinds of enlargements in a simple sentence:
 - (i) One or more adjectives. "The two old prisoners were released."
 - (ii) A noun (or nouns) in apposition. "Peter the Hermit preached to the crowd."
 - (iii) A noun in the possessive. "A stranger filled the Stuarts' throne."
 - (iv) A prepositional phrase. "The soul of music lives in her voice."
 - (v) An adjectival phrase. "The chieftain, unconscious of his son, lay dead."
- (vi) A participle or participial phrase. "A rolling stone gathers no moss." Warned by the gardener, the boys went off."

3. An enlargement is always an adjective or a phrase equivalent to an adjective.

Exercise 246. Arrange in columns the six kinds of ENLARGE-MENTS in the following sentences, thus:

ADJ. | NOUN IN APPOS. | POSSESS. | PREF. PHRASE | ADJ. PHRASE | PART. PHRASE.

1. The lame old man hobbled slowly along. 2. The princess's death was much lamented. 3. The pigmies, with long black hair, were discovered in the great African forest. 4. The fire, having seized the storehouse, could not be subdued. 5. The governor, relying on the general's promise, defended the town.

6. Alexander the coppersmith did me much evil. 7. The rising moon shone brightly on the calm waters. 8. Paul the Apostle was a great traveller. 9. He enters through the River-gate, borne by the joyous crowd. 10. The sound of music and laughter was heard throughout the town. 11. Three long weary days passed. 12. The boy, afraid of the consequences of his action, fled from the town.

Exercise 247. Turn the ENLARGEMENTS in the following sentences into adjectives: 1. The opinion of the people was little heeded by Lord Derby. 2. The castles of the barons were pulled down by Henry 11. 3. The pride of a woman, and the dignity of a queen, sustained Marie Antoinette during her trial. 4. The power of the king does not reach so far. 5. The jurisdiction of the bishop is incomplete. 6. The hand of a friend was stretched out to aid us. 7. No person of judgment would give such an opinion. 8. A man of sense and courage is needed. 9. An artisan without skill botches his work. 10. A cargo of great value was placed in the ship. 11. The deeds of heroes were displayed in the Crimean War. 12. The eagerness of a child misled her.

Lesson 5.—Extensions.

- 1. The adverbs or adverbial phrases that go with the predicate are called Extensions of the Predicate.
 - 2. There are six kinds of extensions:
 - (i) An adverb. "Thomas works hard."

- (ii) An adverbial phrase. "Mr. Wilson spoke very forcibly."
- (iii) A prepositional phrase. "Mr. Thomson spoke with great eloquence,
- (iv) A noun phrase. "We walked side by side."
- (v) A participial phrase. "The rocks came rolling down."
- (vi) A gerundial phrase. "He did it to insult us" (=for the purpose of insulting us). The participal phrase may be a nominative absolute. "The battle being lost, the for retreated."
- 3. All extensions of the predicate are either adverbs or equivalent to adverbs.
- 4. We can now see that all the different parts of a sentence group themselves round either the Subject or the Predicate.

Thus we have:

Enlargements

Extensions

SUBJECT

PREDICATE

(Objects)

Exercise 248. Arrange in six columns the EXTENSIONS in the following sentences:

Adverbs | Adverb. Phrase | Prepositional Phrase | Noun Phrase |
Participial Phrase | Gerundial Phrase

1. The boy walked slowly to the house. 2. Mr. Bright spoke very eloquently. 3. We cheered our journey with singing. 4. Around the fire, one wintry night, the farmer's rosy children sat. 5. The ship is lost beyond a doubt. 6. In all likelihood, Parliament will close soon. 7. Our troops fought with the utmost bravery. 8. Stanley made his way with the greatest caution through the forest. 9. The train came into the station with too great speed. 10. Our journey done, we rested at home. 11. He came walking along very slowly. 12. We eat to live; but we do not live to eat. 13. The nymphs in twilight shades of tangled thickets mourn. 14. The lecture over, we left the hall. 15. The timid Ethelred, year after year, coaxed the savage sea-kings away. 16. Reptiles seldom, indeed hardly ever, attack mankind.

Exercise 249. Add appropriate extensions to the following sentences: 1. The regiment fought. 2. The boy shouted. 3. The clerk writes. 4. The hussar galloped. 5. The engineer ex-

amined the bridge. 6. The magistrate left the chair. 7. The orator replied. 8. They talked over the matter. 9. The army retired. 10. Stay! 11. The expedition ended. 12. He stuck to his opinion.

Lesson 6.—Cautions.

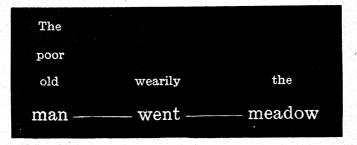
- 1. We must take care not to mistake the noun in an absolute clause for the subject of the sentence.
- (i) "The train having started, we went back to the hotel." Here we is the subject. The absolute clause "the train having started" is an adverbial phrase modifying the predicate "went back."
- (ii) "How shalt thou hope for mercy, rendering none?" Here "rendering none" is not an absolute clause, but a participial phrase going with the subject thou. "How canst thou, who dost not render any mercy, hope for mercy?"
 - 2. Sometimes an object is compound.
- (i) "I saw the ship sink." This is="I saw the ship"+"I saw the sinking of the ship."
 - (ii) "I heard the thunder roar." Here "the thunder roar" is a compound object.
- (iii) Verbs such as to call, to name, to appoint, to proclaim, etc. are called verbs of incomplete predication. Thus we say:
 - (a) He called them knaves.
 - (b) He appointed Mr. Jones manager.
 - (c) The soldier took him prisoner.
 - (d) The heralds proclaimed James 11. King.

Here the verbs He called, He appointed, etc., would not give complete sense. The full verbs are To call-knave, To appoint-manager, To take-prisoner, etc.

- 3. Sometimes a subject is compound.
- (i) "To save money is always useful." Here the subject "to save money" is compound. To save money is the complete subject; but it contains an object "money."
- (ii) "To rebuke him is more than I dare venture on." Here "to rebuke him" is the compound subject.
- 4. The nominative of address (or vocative) can never be the subject of a sentence.
- (i) "John, come here!" The subject in this sentence is not John, but the pronoun you understood.
- (ii) A nominative of address (or vocative) is no organic part of any sentence. It is purely interjectional.

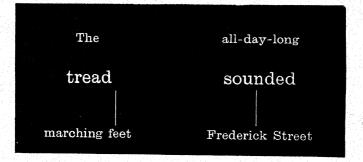
Lesson 7.—Mapping.

- 1. To form a clear idea of the build of a sentence, it is often useful to map it out; and thus to show the relation of each part of the sentence to the whole.
 - (a) It is a good thing to try the mapping-out first on a slate, then in pencil on a piece of paper. It is not always easy at once to hit on the right form.
 - (b) It is also important to consider at first whether the larger number of words and phrases goes with the subject or with the predicate.
- 2. "The poor old man went wearily along the meadow." This sentence may be mapped-out thus:

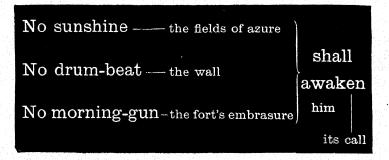


The --- represents the joining-word or preposition along.

3. "All day long through Frederick Street
Sounded the tread of marching feet."
This sentence may be thus represented to the eye:



4. "Him shall no sunshine from the fields of azure, no drum-beat from the wall, no morning-gun from the black fort's embrasure, awaken with its call."



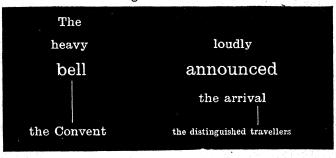
5. "Hearing the imperial name coupled with these words of malice, half in anger, half in shame, forth the great campaigner came slowly from his canvas palace."



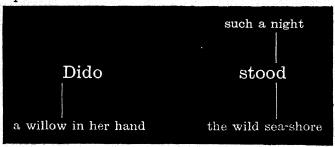
6. "The Queen sat in her parlour, eating bread and honey."



7. "The heavy bell from the convent loudly announced the arrival of the distinguished travellers."



8. In such a night stood Dido, with a willow in her hand, upon the wild sea-shore.



TABULATION OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

A Simple Sentence may be set forth in a Table, as well as in a Map.

Let us take the sentence: "Hearing the imperial name," etc.

It is very advisable not to go too much into detail, but to allow the build of the sentence to stand out clear and plain before the eye and before the mind's eye.

SUBJECT.	ENLARGEMENTS.	PREDICATE.	OBJECT	EXTENSIONS.	
			(if any).		
Campaigner	(1) great	came forth		(1) Slowly	
	(2) hearing, etc.			(2) half-in-anger	
				(3) half-in-shame	
				(4) from his palace	

Lesson 8.—The Compound Sentence.

1. A Compound Sentence is one which consists of two or more Simple Sentences packed into one.

"The way was long, the wind was cold, the minstrel was infirm and old." Here there are three sentences. And, if we turn the last sentence into two ("The minstrel was infirm"+"the minstrel was old"), there are four sentences.

2. A compound sentence may be contracted in the subject.

- (i) "Caesar came, saw, and conquered." This compound sentence consists of three simple sentences: "Caesar came," "Caesar saw," and "Caesar conquered." But, as it is useless to repeat the subject, this compound sentence is contracted in the subject.
- (ii) "The moon rose and lighted up the landscape." This sentence is also contracted in the subject.
 - 3. A compound sentence may be contracted in the object.
- (i) "John met, but William addressed him." The first sentence has the object him understood; and the whole compound sentence is said to be contracted in the object.
- (ii) "I knew him well, and every truant knew." Here the object him is understood in the second sentence. This compound sentence is therefore said to be contracted in the object.

- 4. A compound sentence may be contracted in the predicate.
- . (i) "Either a knave or a fool has done this." This compound sentence is="A knave has done this"+"Or a fool has done this." But the predicate is omitted after one of the subjects; and hence the sentence is said to be contracted in the predicate.
- (ii) "Worth makes the man; the want of it the fellow." Here the predicate makes is omitted after the second subject, and this compound sentence is therefore contracted in the predicate.

Exercise 250. State whether the following sentences are contracted (a) in the SUBJECT, (b) in the OBJECT, or (c) in the PREDICATE: 1. Tom ran into the booking-office and bought his ticket. 2. John and William ran a race. 3. We stood and waited for an hour. 4. The constable chased, but the carpenter captured, the robber. 5. The vulgar boil, the learned roast, an 6. Then mayest thou be restored, but not till then. 7. Some men with swords may reap the field and plant fresh laurels. 8. Fools may admire, but men of sense approve. 9. The widow and her child returned to England. 10. Scrooge went to bed again, and thought and thought and thought it over and over. 11. Believe, and look with triumph on the tomb! 12. Heaven help thee, Southey! and thy readers too! 13. He chid their wanderings, but relieved their pain. 14. Some praise the work, and some the architect. 15. The needy sell it, and the rich man buys. 16. The king is sick, and knows not what he does. 17. Yes! let the rich deride, the proud disdain, these simple blessings of the lowly train. 18. Neither witch nor warlock crossed his path.

Lesson 9.—The Complex Sentence. 1.

- 1. A Complex Sentence is one which contains one Principal Sentence + one or more Subordinate Sentences (or clauses).
- 2 There are three kinds of subordinate sentences: (i) the adjectival; (ii) the noun; and (iii) the adverbial.
 - 3. An adjectival sentence is one that goes with a noun.

 It is no matter whether this noun be the subject, or the object, or a noun in a phrase.
 - 4. Or, an adjectival sentence does the work of an adjective.

(i) "Tears, such as angels weep, burst forth." Here the subordinate sentence (or clause) "such as angels weep" goes with the noun tears, and is therefore adjectival.

(ii) "Ye shall find a colt whereon never man sat." Here the subordinate sentence "whereon never man sat" goes with the noun colt, and is therefore adjectival.

Exercise 251. Select the ADJECTIVAL SENTENCES in the following, and state to what NOUN each attaches itself: 1. He tires betimes, that spurs too fast betimes. 2. The wretch that works and weeps without relief has One that notices his silent grief. 3. He never does anything that is silly. 4. The shop contains nothing that I want. 5. I would hear once more the voice which was my music. 6. Those that fly may fight again. 7. Some few friends she had whom she really loved. 8. Mountains interposed make enemies of nations who had else been mingled into one. 9. Not all who break his bread are true. 10. They are rude as the rocks where my infancy grew. 11. This is the cell wherein the pale-eyed student holds talk with science. 12. Knowledge is the wing wherewith we fly to heaven.

Exercise 252. Work this Exercise like Exercise 251. (In some of the sentences the relatives are omitted.) 1. The coachman took me to the place whence 1 the stage was to start. 2. We are come into the land whither 2 thou sentest us. 3. The reason why 3 the seven stars are no more than seven is a pretty reason. 4. Assign the cause why 3 you denied a Roman maid her liberty 4 5. 'Tis distance (that) lends enchantment to the view. 6. The grapes I had hung up were perfectly dried. 7. She has a grief admits no cure. 8. He's not that abject wretch you think him 4 9. Her face seemed whiter than the white dress she wore. 10. He despatched all the soldiers he overtook. 11. He honoureth them that fear the Lord. 12. Him whom thou hat'st I hate. 13. Handsome is that handsome does. 14. Who risk the most that take wrong means or right?

Lesson 10.—The Complex Sentence. II.

1. A Noun-sentence is one that fulfils the function of a noun. Or, a Noun-sentence does the work of a noun.

(i) "That he is ill is certain." The subordinate sentence "That he is ill" is the subject of the verb is. Being a subject, it fulfils the function of a noun, and is therefore a noun-sentence.

¹ Where=among which.

² Wherein=in which.

- (ii) "He told me that Tom had gone to sea." The subordinate sentence "That Tom had gone to sea" is the object of the active verb sold. Being an object, it fulfils the function of a noun, and is therefore a noun-sentence.
- (iii) "The fact that he escaped is undoubted." Here the subordinate sentence "that he escaped" is in apposition with the noun fact. If it is in apposition with a noun, it fulfils the function of a noun, and is therefore a noun-sentence.
- 2. An adverbial sentence is one that is attached to a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.
- (i) "We walk as-long-as it is light." Here the subordinate sentence "as-long-as it is light," is attached to the verb walk, and is therefore an adverbial sentence.
- (ii) "His grief was such that all pitied him." Here the subordinate sentence, "that all pitied him," modifies the adjective such, and is therefore an adverbial sentence. (It gives the measure of the "such-ness.")
- (iii) "She was as gentle as a dove (is gentle)." Here the subordinate sentence "as a dove is gentle," modifies the adverb as (which stands before the first gentle), and is therefore an adverbial sentence. (It gives the measure of the "as-ness.")
- 3. Any number of subordinate sentences may be attached to the principal sentence.

This is best seen in the story of "The House that Jack Built."

- (a) This (house) is the house that-Jack-built.
- (b) This (malt) is the malt that-lay-in-the-house, etc.
- (c) This (rat) is the rat that-ate-the-malt-that, etc.
- (d) This (cat) is the cat that-killed-the-rat-that-ate-the, etc.

Exercise 253. Point out the NOUN-SENTENCES in the following; and state whether they occupy the place (a) of the SUBJECT, or (b) of the OBJECT, or (c) whether they are IN APPOSITION: 1. Montague knows well that England is safe. 2. Both kings agreed that a council should meet. 3. Critics admit that he was a great poet, but deny that he was a great man. 4. My friends told me that I was much too shy. 5. The people boasted that they lived in a land flowing with milk and honey. 6. That he was a wonderful child was evident to all. 7. It is not good that man should be alone. 8. It seems that he held a high place in the class. 9. The fact that he has disappeared is unquestionable. 10. He declared his opinion that the minister must resign. 11. Whether the house is leaseable or not I do not know. 12. I wonder what Miss Watson is thinking about?

Exercise 254. Point out the Adverbial sentences in the following, and state to what (a) verb, or (b) adjective, or (c) adverb each sentence is attached: 1. The children wept when they heard the sad news. 2. We shall rejoice if good fortune comes. 3. The man started as if he had seen a ghost. 4. When Greek meets Greek, then comes the tug of war. 5. His comrade bent over him, while his life-blood ebbed away. 6. The children lingered where the violets grew. 7. He was so * ill that he could not speak. 8. Wherever I went was my poor dog Tray. 9. The gentleman called while we were out. 10. The boys were tired after they had walked ten miles. 11. The girl cried till her eyes were quite red. 12. Heaven does with us as we with torches do.

Exercise 255. Work the following like Exercise 254: 1. Fly thither whence thou fled'st! 2. O lead me wheresoe'er I go, through this day's life or death! 3. When Columbus arrived at Cordova, the Court looked like a military camp. 4. The schoolmaster had scarcely uttered these words when the stranger entered. 5. Now thou art gone, we have no staff, no stay! 6. He rose as I entered. 7. As ended Albert's simple lay, arose a bard of loftier port. 8. The book may go to press as-soon-as you will. 9. Ages elapsed ere Homer's lamp appeared. 10. If the fire of genius failed her, she had at least intellectual honesty. 11. If their lungs receive our air, that moment slaves are free. 12. If he was little loved, he was greatly respected. 13. Though He slay me, I will trust in Him.

EXERCISE 256. Distinguish between the ADJECTIVAL, NOUN, and ADVERBIAL SENTENCES in the following: 1. How the government can be carried on is a pressing question. 2. He went on working till it was quite dark. 3. One sleeps where foreign vines are drest. 4. This frank declaration pleased me so much that I handed him my purse. 5. After he had dined with his friends he voted against them. 6. Soft is the music that would charm for ever. 7. He'll prove a buzzard is no fowl, and that a lord may be an owl. 8. Thrice is he armed that hath his quarrel just. 9. He little knew how much he had wronged her. 10. The wicked flee when no man pursueth. 11. When clouds are seen, wise men put on their cloaks. 12. The postman reported that the general was dead.

^{*} The adverbial sentence, "that he could not speak," is attached to so. It shows the "so-ness" of his illness.

- 4. It is plain, from all that we have seen, that an Enlargement may be one of three things: (a) a word; (b) a phrase; or (c) an adjectival sentence.
 - (i) The man's hat flew off.
 - (ii) The man with the white hat is standing there.
 - (iii) The man whom you saw is at the door.
- 5. In the same way, a Subject may be one of three things:
 (a) a word; (b) a phrase; or (c) a noun-sentence.
 - (i) John is a carpenter.
 - (ii) Playing football is sometimes dangerous.
 - (iii) That he has gone away is certain.
 - (iv) All the above is true also of the Object.
- 6. In the same way, an Extension may be one of three things: (a) a word; (b) a phrase; or (c) an adverbial sentence.
 - (i) The regiment fought bravely.
 - (ii) The regiment fought with the greatest courage.
 - (iii) The regiment fought as it was expected to fight.

Lesson 11.—Directions for the Analysis of Complex Sentences.

- 1. Find out the principal sentence.
- 2. Find out the subject of the principal sentence.
- 3. Find out the predicate of the principal sentence.
- 4. If the predicate consists of an active-transitive verb, find out (i) its direct, and (ii) its indirect (if any), object.
- 5. Collect all the words and phrases that are attached to the subject.
- 6. Collect all the words and phrases that are attached to the predicate,

- 7. Collect all the words and phrases that are attached to the object.
 - 8. The following is the ORDER:
- 1. Principal Sentence. 2. Subject. 3. Predicate. 4. Object.

2a. Words and phrases that phrases that go with the go with the Subject.

2a. Words and 4a. Words and phrases that phrases that go with the go with the Subject.

2b. Words and 4a. Words and 4b. Words and phrases that phrases that go with the Subject.

Lesson 12.—Cautions in the Analysis of Complex Sentences.

- 1. Do not be guided by the part of speech that introduces a subordinate sentence. Consider nothing but the function of the subordinate sentence.
 - (i) Does it do the work of a noun? Then it is a noun-sentence.
 - (ii) Does it do the work of an adjective? Then it is an adjectival sentence.
 - (iii) Does it do the work of an adverb? Then it is an adverbial sentence.
- (iv) "I do not know where he is." Here the adverb where introduces the subordinate sentence. But, in spite of this fact, the subordinate sentence is simply a noun-sentence, because it is the object of the verb know.
- (v) "The place where he is buried is unknown." Here the subordinate sentence "where he is buried," is introduced by an adverb. But the sentence "where he is buried" is attached to and goes with the noun place; and it is therefore an adjectival sentence.
- (vi) In the same way, when, whither, whence, how, why, etc., may introduce adjectival sentences.
 - 2. A connective may be omitted.
- (i) "Is this the book you want?" We must supply the connective or relative pronoun that; and the subordinate sentence "that you want" is an adjectival sentence, because it goes with the noun book.
- (ii) This omission of the connective (or relative) is very common in poetry. Shake-speare says: "I have a brother is condemned to die." Shelley has: "Men must rean the things they sow."

Lesson 13.—The Mapping of Complex Sentences.

The single lines — represent prepositions; the double lines — conjunctions; and the double lines with a bar across — relative pronouns.

1. Let us take a sentence: "As I walked along the High Street, I thought (that) I saw the old soldier who was wounded in the Crimean War." This can be mapped in the following way:

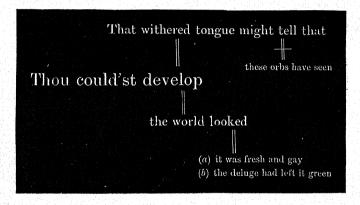


2. Let us try Longfellow's verse:

"Spake full well, in language quaint and olden, One who dwelleth by the castled Rhine, When he called the flowers, so blue and golden, Stars that in earth's firmament do shine."



- ## (i) The subordinate adverbial sentence "when he called," etc., does not modify the verb spake, but the adverb well.
 - (ii) It was then that he spoke well "when he called the flowers," etc.
- 3. The following is from Horace Smith's "Address to a Mummy:"
 - "Thou couldst develop—if that withered tongue
 Might tell us what these sightless orbs have seen—
 How the world looked when it was fresh and young,
 And the great Deluge still had left it green."



- (i) The what in "what these orbs have seen" must be broken up into that which.
- (ii) "How the world looked" is a noun-sentence, because it is the object of the active verb develop.

Lesson 14.—Tabular Analysis of Complex Sentences.

It is not at all advisable to ride the system of analysis to death, or to overload it with a cumbrous and difficult terminology. This is to defeat the very purpose of analysis—which is to make, the build of a sentence stand out plain and clear to the eye and to the mind. The minor details quickly fall into their proper places, if the main parts of the sentence are clearly seen and thoroughly grasped.

ORDER OF CLAUSES.	SENTENCE.	KIND OF SENTENCE.	CONNECTIVE,
A	One spake full well	Principal sentence	
Ъ	who dwelleth by the Rhine	Adjectival sentence to one (the subject of A)	who (a relative or con- nective pronoun)
c	(when) he called the flowers stars	Adverbial sentence to the adverb well in A	when (an adverbial conjunction or con- nective adverb)
d	(that) shine in earth's firmament	Adjectival sentence to the noun stars in c	

It is advisable to designate all principal sentences by capital letters A, B, C, etc.; and the subordinate by small letters b, c, d, etc. Then we can say that A is co-ordinate with B or with C and that b is subordinate to A, etc. etc.

THE GRAMMAR OF VERSE, OR PROSODY.

Lesson 1.—What Verse is.

- 1. Verse or measured language is the form in which Poetry is written.
- (i) The word versa means turned; a "verse" means "turned speech." It is so called because the writer or printer does not print straight on, as he does in prose; but, when he gets to the end of what is called "a line," he turns, and begins a new line, even though the sense has not ended.
- (ii) Prose means straightforward speech; and the length of "the line" depends entirely on the size of the page—that is, on the pleasure of the printer.
- 2. Verse consists of measured speech; and it is measured by the number of accents.
- (i) An accent is a stroke or beat on a particular syllable. Thus liddy has the accent on the first syllable; compil has the accent on the last syllable.
- (ii) We have, in English verse, to notice not only the number, but the position of the accents.
- 3. English Verse is made up of lines. Each line contains a fixed number of accents:

No fóot Fitz-Jámes in stírrup stáyed, No grásp upón the sáddle láid. Each of these lines contains four accents.

Lesson 2.—Feet. 1.

- 1. One accented syllable + one or two unaccented syllables is called a foot.
- (i) Thus merry is one kind of foot; merrily is another. The first has two syllables; the second has three; but each foot contains only one accented syllable.

- (ii) It is usual to call the accented syllable a; and the unaccented x.
- (iii) The feet used in English verse have Greek names.
- 2. One accented syllable preceded by an unaccented syllable s called an Iambus. It is indicated by xa.
 - (i) The following words are iambuses: Perháps, condemn, begone.
 - (ii) The following phrases are iambuses: At rest, in vain, etc.
- 3. One accented syllable followed by an unaccented syllable is called a Trochee. It is indicated by ax.
 - (i) The following words are trochees: Gentle, lady, coming, ever.
 - (ii) The following phrases are trochees: Let me, now that, etc.
 - (iii) Coleridge says:

Iám|bies márch | from shórt | to lóng.

This line contains four iambuses; and its formula is 4xa.

(iv) He also says:

Trochee | trips from | long to | short -:

This line contains four trochees; but the last trochee wants an unaccented syllalle. Its formula is 4ax.

Lesson 3.—Feet. II.

- 1. One accented syllable preceded by two unaccented syllables is called an Anapaest. It is indicated by xxa.
 - (i) The following words are anapaests: Comprehend, disappear, intercéde.
 - (ii) The following phrases are anapaests: I am hère, are you thère?
 - (iii) Coleridge says:

With a leap | and a bound | the swift an apaests throng!
This line contains four anapaests; and its formula is 4xxa.

- 2. One accented syllable followed by two unaccented is called a Dactyl. It is indicated by axx.
 - (i) The following words are dactyls: Háppily, mérrily, símilar.
 - (ii) The following phrases are dactyls: Hárk to it! Fást they come!
- (iii) The Greek word dactylos means a finger; and it will be observed that a linger has one long joint and two short ones.

3. All these four feet may be shown in a TABLE:

NAME OF FOOT.	CHARACTER.	Sign.	Examples.
Iambus Anapaest Trochee	Accent last	xa xxa	Revénge, infér Disappéar, comprehénd Cánnon, cóming
Dactyl	Accent first	axx	Mérrily, háppily

Lesson 4.—Kinds of Verse. 1.

- 1. The most common kind of verse is Iambic Verse.
- 2. The most usual kinds of Iambic Verse are 4xa and 5xa.
- (i) Iambic verse of four feet, or 4xa, is the measure in which Sir Walter Scott wrote the "Lady of the Lake," the "Lay of the Last Minstrel," "Marmion," etc.
- (ii) Iambic verse of five feet, or 5xa, is the most common of all verse in our English Poetical Literature. It is the verse of Chaucer, of Shakespeare, of Milton, of Dryden, of Pope, of Cowper, and of Crabbe.
- 3. When 5xa is rhymed, it is called heroic verse; when it is unrhymed, it is called blank verse.
 - (i) Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales" are written in heroic verse. So are Crabbe's poems.
 - (ii) Milton's "Paradise Lost" is written in blank verse. So are Shakespeare's plays.

Lesson 5.—Kinds of Verse. II.

1. When 4xa is alternated with 3xa, and when the second and fourth lines rhyme, the verse is called Ballad Metre.

The ice was here, the ice was there,

= 4xa

The ice was all around;

= 3xa

It cracked and growled, it roared and howled,= 4xa

Like noises in a swound.

3xa

2. Trochaic verse is not usual; but when found, it is generally in the form of 4ax.

- (i) This is the metre of Longfellow's "Hiawatha":

 Then the little Hiawatha

 Learn'd of ev'ry bird the language,

 Learned their names and all their secrets,

 How they built their nests in summer.
- (ii) Longfellow's "Norman Baron" is in rhymed 42x: In his chamber, weak and dýing Was the Norman baron lýing.
- (iii) Tennyson's "Locksley Hall" is written in 8ax (with one syllable wanting):

 Cómrades, | leave me | hére a | little, | while as | yét 'tis | early | mórn—

 Léave me | hére, and, | whén you | want me, | sound up|ón the | bugle | hórn—.
- 3. Dactylic verse is very uncommon: and the few examples to be found are in 2axx.
 - (i) Tennyson's "Charge of the Light Brigade" is in 2axx:

Cannon to | right of them, Cannon to | left of them, Cannon be | hind them — Volleyed and | thundered —.

The last two lines are each deficient in an unaccented syllable.

(ii) Scott's "Gathering Cry of Donald the Black" is also in 2axx:

Pibroch of | Dónuil Dhu, Pibroch of | Dónuil —! Wake thy wild | vóice anew, Summon Clan | Cónuil —!

AS The second and fourth lines are each deficient in an unaccented syllable.

Lesson 6.—Head-rhyme.

- 1. The Old-English rhyme was head-rhyme, not end-rhyme.
- (i) Head-rhyme was used in England from the 5th to the 14th century.
- (ii) End-rhyme was imported from France and Italy in the 14th century.
- 2. Writers did not make the ends of the words jingle together; they made the first letters correspond.
 - (i) They did not care to make sing rhyme with bring; or song with long.
 - (ii) They made head-rhmyes like: Cark and care; weal and woe; watch and ward.
- (iii) An exaggerated instance of this is to be found in: Peter Piper picked a peck of pepper off a pewter plate.

(iv) Here are two lines from an old poem of the 14th century:

In a summer season when soft was the sun.

And as I lay and leaned and looked in the waters.

- (v) This habit of alliteration, as it is now called, continued in the poetry of the North and West of England up to the end of the 14th century.
- 3. Later poets employed the practice of alliteration because the language had fallen into the habit of it.
 - (i) Spenser, who wrote in the 16th century, uses it freely:

Gay without good is good heart's greatest loathing. Add faith unto your force, and be not faint.

(ii) Shakespeare, who wrote both in the 16th and in the 17th century, uses it, though he often makes fun of it. He speaks of Englishmen as

Feared by their breed, and famous for their birth.

- (iii) Gray (d. 1771) employs it in his "Elegy in a Country Churchyard": The ploughman homeward plods his weary way.
- (iv) Tennyson, who has been writing poetry from 1830 to 1890, has often used it. Thus, in "The Day Dream," he has:

And o'er them many a sliding star
And many a merry wind was borne,
And, streamed thro' many a golden bar,
The twilight melted into morn.

(v) The usage of alliteration has also passed into common speech, which contains many phrases like these: Sooth to say; cark and care; rhyme and reason; watch and ward; weal and woe; wit and wisdom.

Lesson 7.--End-rhyme.

- 1. The rhyme brought from France and Italy in the fourteenth century has been for five centuries established here.
- (i) It was at first called end-rhyme, to distinguish it from the Old English and native head-rhyme.
 - (ii) But end-rhyme is now called simply rhyme.
 - 2. Rhyme has four laws.

	3. '	Γ he	first	aw is	that	the	last	consonant	must	be	the
sar	ne	in th	e two	rhym	ing w	ords					

(i) Thus down fast flood ranks town passed blood planks

are all good rhymes.

(ii) The st in fast and the ssed in passed are the same to the ear; and, as rhyme exists for the ear, and not for the eye, fast and passed are good rhymes.

4. Second law: The preceding consonant must be different.

(i) · Thus	bow	die	vein	rein
	bough	dуe	vain	rain
would not be goo	d rhymes, becau	se the conson	ant preceding ea	ch of them is the same.
(ii) But	bow	die	vein	rein

cow sigh rein pane

are perfectly good rhymes.

5. Third: The accent must fall on the rhymed syllable.

- (i) Thus sing and ring are good rhymes, and so are sighing and dying, because in each case the accent strikes the rhyming syllables.
- (ii) But sing would not rhyme with lifting or with running, because the last syllable ing in each word is not accented at all.

6. The fourth law is that the sound must be the same.

(i) It does not matter at all though the spelling is different; thus

on wide pray gone sighed they are all good rhymes.

(ii) English poetry permits half-rhymes, such as

gown good love tast.
own flood move past



MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES FOR ANALYSIS.

Exercise 257. The impeachment, while it much affected Mr. Toodle, junior, attached to his character so justly that he could not say a word in denial.

Exercise 258. Attend all ye who list to hear our noble England's praise!

Exercise 259. Soon as the evening shades prevail, the moon takes up the wondrous tale.

Make soon-as one word. It is a conjunctive adverb.

Exercise 260. A time there was, ere England's griefs began, when every rood of ground maintained its man.

Take there-was as one word=existed.

Exercise 261. As far as they could judge by ken, three hours would bring to Teviot's strand three thousand armed Englishmen.

Exercise 262. Where a great regular army exists, limited monarchy, such as it was in the middle ages, can exist no longer.

Exercise 263. I knew a wise man who believed that, if a man were permitted to make the ballads, he need not care who made the laws, of a nation.

Exercise 264. I am so deeply smitten through the helm, that without help I may not last till morn.

The subordinate sentence "That I may not last" modifies the adverb "so."

Exercise 265. The iron gate is bolted hard, at which I knock in vain; the owner's heart is closer barred, who hears me thus complain.

Exercise 266. In Brugés town is many a street whence busy life has fled; where, without hurry, noiseless feet the grassgrown pavement tread.

Whence=from which. Where=on which.

Exercise 267. As through the land at eve we went, and plucked the ripened ears, we fell out, my wife and I, and kissed again with tears.

Exercise 268. They met a policeman, who told them he had seen a suspicious character lurking in the lane.

Who=and he.

Exercise 269. It was a common saying in his company that, when the captain laughed, he was sure to punish.

Exercise 270. 'Tis his highness's pleasure you do prepare to ride unto St. Alban's, where the king and queen do mean to hawk.

'T (=It) is a "preparatory subject, employed to introduce a noun-sentence.

Exercise 271. His sword was in its sheath, his fingers held the pen, when Kempenfeldt went down, with twice four hundred men.

Exercise 272. That dwarf was scarce an earthly man, if the tales were true of him that ran.

Exercise 273. 'Tis sweet to know there is an eye will mark our coming, and grow brighter when we come.

Eye will-eye that will.

Exercise 274. Saint Augustine! well hast thou said, that of our vices we can frame a ladder, if we will but tread beneath our feet each deed of shame.

Exercise 275. My wind, cooling my broth, would blow me to an ague, when I thought what harm a wind too great at sea might do.

Exercise 276. It is the land that freemen till, that sobersuited freedom chose,—the land where, girt with friends or foes, a man may speak the thing he will.

Where=in which.

Exercise 277. That time of year thou may'st in me behold, when yellow leaves, or none, or few, do hang upon those boughs which shake against the cold, bare ruined choirs, where late the sweet birds sang.

Exercise 278. Courage, poor heart of stone! I will not ask thee why thou canst not understand that thou art left for ever alone.

Exercise 279. There is a land of pure delight where omelettes grow on trees, and roasted pigs run crying out, "Come! eat me, if you please!"

Exercise 280. After he had enlarged on that seller's theme—the excellence of his property—he begged that we would taste his coffee, which he hoped we would find very good.

Exercise 281. The world of fools has such a store, that he who would not see an ass must bide at home and bolt his door, and break his looking-glass.

The subordinate sentence, "That he must bide," etc., modifies the adjective such.

Exercise 282. While thus I called, and strayed—I knew not whither, from where I first drew air and first beheld this happy light, when answer none returned, on a green shady bank profuse of flowers, pensive I sat me down.

Exercise 283. When the warm sun, that brings seed-time and harvest, has returned again, 'tis sweet to visit the still wood, where springs the first flower of the plain.

Exercise 284. (And) moving toward a cedarn cabinet, she took the robe, and dressed herself therein, remembering when first he came on her drest in that dress, and how he loved her in it.

Exercise 285. He thought even yet, the truth to speak, that, if she loved the harp to hear, he could make music to her ear.

Exercise 286. When I told you, lady, my state was nothing, then I should have told you that it was worse than nothing.

Exercise 287. O nightingale, that on you bloomy spray warblest at eve, when all the woods are still, thou with fresh hope the lover's heart dost fill, while the jolly hours lead on propitious May.

Exercise 288. There's not the smallest orb which thou behold'st, but in his motion like an angel sings.

But=that . . not.

Exercise 289. When Letty had scarce passed her third glad year, and her young artless words began to flow, one day we gave the child a coloured sphere of the wide earth, that she might mark and know, by tint and outline, all its sea and land.

Exercise 290. (And), parted thus, they rest, who played beneath the same green tree, whose voices mingled as they prayed around one parent knee.

Exercise 291. Sleep, gentle sleep, nature's soft nurse! how have I frighted thee, that thou no more wilt weigh my eyelids down, and steep my senses in forgetfulness?

Exercise 292. This is servitude—to serve the unwise, or him who hath rebelled against his worthier.

Exercise 293. True is it that we have seen better days, and have with holy bell been toll'd to church, and sat at good men's feasts, and wiped our eyes of drops that sacred pity hath engendered.

Exercise 294. He who fights and runs away may live to fight another day; but he who is in battle slain will never live to fight again.

Exercise 295. He ne'er could be true (she averred) who would rob a poor bird of its young; and I loved her the more when I heard such tenderness fall from her tongue.

Exercise 296. If plants be cut, because their fruits are small, think you to thrive, that bear no fruit at all?

Exercise 297. The daisy, by the shadow that it casts, protects the lingering dew-drop from the sun.

Exercise 298. We thought, as we hollowed his narrow bed, and smoothed down his lonely pillow, that the foe and the stranger would tread o'er his head, and we far away on the billow!

Exercise 299. (But), when they turned their faces, and on the farther shore saw brave Horatius stand alone, they would have crossed once more.

Exercise 300. Love lives on, and hath a power to bless, when they who loved are hidden in the grave.

Exercise 301. We cannot kindle when we will the fire that in the heart resides.

Exercise 302. Mysterious Night! when our first parent knew thee from report divine, and heard thy name, did he not tremble for this lovely frame, this glorious canopy of white and blue?

Exercise 303. There's not a joy the world can give, like that it takes away.

Exercise 304. What here we call our life is such, so little to be loved, and thou so much, that I should ill requite thee to constrain thy unbound spirit into bonds again.

Exercise 305. She bade me, if I had a friend that loved her. I should but teach him how to tell my story, and that would woo her.

Exercise 306. The shades of night were falling fast, as through an Alpine village passed a youth, who bore mid snow and ice a banner with a strange device.

Exercise 307. Such were the clans, whose fiery coursers feed where waves on Kishon's bank the whispering reed.

Exercise 308. The woman, in such piteous sort that any heart had ached to hear her, begged that, wheresoe'er I went, I still would ask for him whom she had lost.

Exercise 309. Good temper—'tis the choicest gift that woman homeward brings, and can the poorest peasant lift to bliss unknown to kings.

Exercise 310.

Perceiv'st thou not the process of the year, How the four seasons in four forms appear, Resembling human life in every shape they wear?

Exercise 311. Strong climber of the mountain side, though thou the vale disdain, yet walk with me where hawthorns hide the wonders of the lane.—EBENEZER ELLIOTT.

Exercise 312.

When I am forgotten, as I shall be, And sleep in dull cold marble, where no mention Of me must more be heard of, say I taught thee.

SHAKESPEARE.

Exercise 313. We're up to tend the cattle, when the Londoner's in bed; we hear the thunder rattle, when there's nothing overhead to shield us in the racket; and when down doth pour the rain, we only shake our jacket, and we go to work again.

R. CRAWLEY.

Exercise 314.

Had I but served my God with half the zeal I served my king, He would not in mine age Have left me naked to mine enemies.

SHAKESPEARE.

Exercise 315.

Merlin and Vivian stopped on the slope's brow To gaze on the green sea of leaf and bough Which glittering lay all round them, lone and mild, As if to itself the quiet forest smiled.

MATTHEW ARNOLD.

Exercise 316.

In the down-hill of life, when I find I'm declining,
May my lot no less fortunate be,
Than a snug elbow-chair can afford for reclining,
And a cot that o'erlooks the wide sea.

Exercise 317.

Some murmur when their sky is clear, And wholly bright to view, If one small speck of dark appear In their great heaven of blue.

TRENCH.

Exercise 318.

How happy is he born and taught,
That serveth not another's will;
Whose armour is his honest thought,
And simple truth his utmost skill!

WOTTON.

Exercise 319. To be resigned when ills betide, patient when favours are denied, and pleased with favours given, dear Chloë, this is wisdom's part, this is that wisdom of the heart whose fragrance smells to heaven.

Exercise 320.

Woe doth the heavier sit
Where it perceives it is but faintly borne.
For gnarling sorrow hath less power to bite
The man that mocks at it, and sets it light.

SHAKESPEARE.

Exercise 321.

Clasped in his arms, I little thought That I should never more behold him!

J. LOGAN.

Exercise 322.

Close to the thorn on which Sir Walter leaned, Stood his dumb partner in this glorious feat; Weak as a lamb the hour that it is yeaned, And white with foam as if with cleaving sleet.

WORDSWORTH.

Exercise 323.

Till the foundations of the mountains fail,
My mansion with its arbour shall endure—
The joy of them who till the fields of Swale,
Of them who dwell among the woods of Ure.
Wordsworth

Exercise 324.

Some say that here a murder has been done, And blood cries out for blood; but, for my part, I've guessed, when I've been sitting in the sun, That it was all for that unhappy hart.

WORDSWORTH.

Exercise 325.

Their shields
Dashed with a clang together, and a din
Rose, such as that the sinewy wood-cutters
Make often in the forest's heart at morn,
Of hewing axes, crashing trees; such blows
Rustum and Sobrab on each other bailed.

M. ARNOLD.

Exercise 326

Haroun, who felt that on a soul like this The mightiest vengeance could but fall amiss, Now deigned to smile, as one great lord of fate Might smile upon another half as great.

L. HUNT.

Exercise 327.

There was a time, when, though my path was rough, The joy within me dallied with distress; And all misfortunes were but as the stuff Whence fancy made me dreams of happiness.

Exercise 328.

There is a flower, the lesser celandine,
That shrinks like many more from cold and rain;
And the first moment that the sun may shine,
Bright as the sun himself, 'tis out again!
WORDWORTH.

Exercise 329.

Through the black Tartar tents he passed, which stood Clustering like bee-hives, on the low flat strand Of Oxus, where the summer floods o'erflow When the sun melts the snow in high Pamere.

M. Arnold.

Exercise 330.

No action, whether foul or fair, Is ever done, but it leaves somewhere A record, written by fingers ghostly, As a blessing or a curse, and mostly In the greater weakness or greater strength Of the acts which follow it, till at length The wrongs of ages are redressed, And the justice of God made manifest.



PLAN OF WRITTEN PARSING.

Tell me not, in mournful numbers Life is but an empty dream.

Tell Verb, weak, trans., act. voice, imperat. mood, pres. tense, governing the sub. sent. "(that) life is," etc.), 2nd pers. plural, agreeing with you understood.

me Pers. pron., 1st per. sing., com. gen., dative case (ind. obj. to "tell").

not Adverb, mod. Tell.

but

Prep. connecting Tell and numbers, and governing numbers in obj.

mournful Adj. of qual., qualifying numbers, pos. degree.

(that) Conjunction (understood), joining the two sentences

Tell me not and Life is, etc.

life Noun, com., 3rd per. sing., neut., nom. to verb is.

Verb irreg. and defective, indic. mood, pres. tense.

3rd pers. sing. agreeing with *Life*.

Adverb, modifying the phrase an empty dream.

an Adj. of number, going with dream.

empty Adj. of quality, positive deg., qualifying dream.

aream | Noun, com., 3rd per. sing., neut., nom. after the verb is.